

The History Teacher's Magazine

Volume II.
Number 6.

PHILADELPHIA, FEBRUARY, 1911.

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Most Serene, Serene, most puissant, puissant, high, illustrious, noble, honorable, venerable, wise and prudent Emperors, Kings, Republics, Princes, Dukes, Earls, Barons, Lords, Burgomasters, Counsellors, as also Judges, Officers, Justiciaries & Agents of all the good Cities and places, whether ecclesiastical or secular, who shall see these patents or hear them read We the United States of America in Congress Assembled, make known that John Green Captain of the Ship call'd the Empress of China is a Citizen of the United States of America and that the Ship which he commands, belongs to Citizens of the said United States and we wish to see the said John Green prosper in his lawful affairs, our prayer is to all the beforementioned, and to each of them separately, where the said John Green shall arrive with his Vessel & Cargo that they may please to receive him with goodness and to treat him in a becoming manner, permitting him upon the usual tolls & expences in passing & repassing, to pass, navigate and frequent the Ports, Passes and territories to the end to transact his business where and in what manner he shall judge proper, whereof we shall be willingly indebted.

Thos. Mifflin

Chas. Thompson

In Testimony whereof we have caused the Seal of the United States to be hereunto affixed - Witness His Excellency Thomas Mifflin President this thirtieth day of January in the year of our Lord one thousand seven hundred & Eighty four and in the Eighth year of the Sovereignty & Independence of the United States of America.

Passport given by the Continental Congress to Captain John Green of the Ship, Empress of China, the first vessel flying the American flag to visit China.

For details of the voyage see McMaster,

"History of the People of the United States," I, p. 259-262.

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The History Teacher's Magazine

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Reference Work

In High School History Courses

BY CLARENCE PERKINS, PH.D., ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF EUROPEAN HISTORY IN OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY.

One of the great difficulties which the progressive history teacher has to meet both in high schools and colleges is to induce his students to do regular, thorough, and systematic reading in reference books. The colleges and universities are insisting more and more vigorously that high school history courses be broader than any single text-book; but, owing to various difficulties, in many schools history is still taught almost wholly from a single text-book. It is true that far better books are to be had now than a decade or two ago, but even such excellent books as Robinson's *Western Europe* leave somewhat to be desired, and the study of these alone can give only a superficial knowledge of history and inferior training if not accompanied by a reasonable amount of systematic collateral reading. It is hardly necessary to present any brief to prove this.

The teacher may object, however, that first-year high school students are so immature that they do well if they get the main outlines of Greek and Roman History without attempting to master the intricacies of Athenian Constitutional History from Draco to Demosthenes or the checks and balances of the Roman constitution as told by Polybius. Moreover the ground to be covered in the first two years of high school history with these young students is very extensive, from the ancient Egyptians to present-day European conditions. Owing to the pressure of a variety of subjects in the curriculum, the time spent on the history of Continental Europe is often too short to admit of much reference reading being required. Even if time were available, there is the great difficulty of securing enough duplicate copies even of a few standard reference books to enable all the students to do their reading.

Some of these difficulties confront even the college teacher, especially in the large freshman course; but they do not warrant any teacher in refusing to insist on collateral reading being done. The high school freshman is immature, but surely he is capable of doing some reading, if it is brought down nearly to his level. The teacher can well afford to slur rapidly over the details of Egyptian, Chaldean, and Assyrian History, giving merely a clear picture of the life under these ancient monarchies and an outline of their contributions to world civilization. The student need not be compelled to master all the details of the constitutional changes of Athens from Homeric times to Cleisthenes and the details of early Greek History, if the teacher will only insist on the thorough mastery of some outside reading on the history of Athens and Sparta after the fifth century. Use the biographical method as much as possible. Dry institutional history does not interest the high school student, but he can be vitally interested in the personality and deeds of great men, and that sort of reading should be assigned. Excessive emphasis on biography may well tend to give somewhat of a false prospective, but the teacher will have at least aroused interest and shown the student that all the facts of Ancient History are not contained in one single volume. The teacher should take care, however, not to assign too

much. Many a high school student can hardly paraphrase accurately a few pages of simple prose and the minimum assignments should be proportioned to his abilities and then the reading be strictly required of him.

The difficulty offered by the amount of material to be dealt with in the first two years of high school history can best be met by going rapidly over the earlier portion of each historical subject, such as the early parts of Greek and Roman History which are largely mythical, the medieval period in the history of Continental Europe and England, and the colonial period of American History. The teacher should never forget that high school pupils are not likely to be interested in or benefited by antiquarian research, that the most of them will never go beyond the high school if they complete that course, and that the prime object of high school history should not be preparation for college, but preparation for life, to give the student knowledge of the past century or two of the history of England and Europe, and to form in him the habit of correct thinking concerning the political and social problems which he will meet in the complex modern world. This will also be found to be the line of least resistance in the case of the average boy or girl. Interest can be stimulated by the introduction of material about very recent and contemporary European events. Back files of standard reviews and magazines can be very effectively used for this purpose by assigning reports on special topics of current interest to individual students. In dealing with topics as far back as the Renaissance and Protestant Revolt the teacher can continually bring out the connection between these movements and modern conditions and thus show the practical importance of the subject matter under discussion. Even in Greek and Roman History the same method should be followed. The modern period of Greece, that following Alexander's conquests, is more like the present time in events and especially in its political, social, economic, and intellectual conditions than the earlier periods and should receive more emphasis than it usually does. Likewise due emphasis should be placed on the Roman Empire and its influence on the Middle Ages.

Even after going rapidly over the medieval portion of European or English History, it may well be advisable not to require very extensive collateral reading on all the following periods. It is better to do thoroughly what is attempted than to do a large amount superficially. In his plan for the course as a whole, the teacher should fix his students' attention on two or three central ideas, the development of which it is the business of the course to trace. For England there might be the growth of religious liberty and democracy; and for Medieval and Modern History, the growth of the modern nations and their unification under single governments, and the rise and spread of constitutional liberty. The great epochs in history such as the Protestant Revolt and the French Revolution should be made to stand out in bold relief, and every event previous to either which can be connected casually to the great epoch-making movement should

be emphasized, and its connection explained by the students themselves so far as possible. For example, the various events and sub-topics of Louis XIV's reign can nearly all be shown to be causally connected with the Great Revolution. The student can be made to see that the general policy of Louis XIV in his wars was ill-advised because he drove Holland into the arms of her commercial rival England, whose commercial and colonial expansion it would have been the best policy for France to forestall; and that the tradition of Louis XIV's policy of ruinous emphasis on land wars at the expense of naval and colonial power was followed by his mediocre successors, thus piling up much of the debt which finally obliged Louis XVI to call the Estates General in 1789. It can likewise be shown that the domestic policies of Louis XIV helped to bring on the Revolution and influenced its progress during the succeeding years. The central government took to itself more and more power and thus deprived the French people of all political experience. Finally when the crash swept away the cumbrous and inefficient bureaucracy, the mass of French people knew nothing of self-government, made many blunders, and eventually the way was paved for another absolutism more complete than that of the eighteenth century Bourbons. Louis's attraction of the majority of the nobles to Paris, which did much to afflict France with the evils of absentee landlordism, Colbert's paternal economic policies and failure to make thoroughgoing reforms in the taxation system, and the religious unification of France brought about by the persecutions of the Huguenots and the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes can all be shown to be causes of the outbreak of the Revolution and influential in its progress. The same method can be effectively applied to many other periods to the great stimulation of the average student's power of thought. By emphasizing the reasons for events, by getting underneath the surface of the facts, the interest of the students can be aroused and their powers of judgment developed. Very frequently this emphasis on interpretation will bring out knowledge gained from the collateral reading, and thus make the student feel that his work is known.

One of the greatest difficulties in getting the outside reading thoroughly mastered is the natural laziness of the students and their belief that the teacher will never know if the work is not done. Unfortunately all too many teachers do not know how little of their assigned reading is actually studied by their pupils. Often the assignments are to books which may be historically accurate but are insufferably dull to the active boy or girl. This last objection applies with especial force to some collections of original source material. Far be it from me to deny the value of training the student in the use of original sources, but the requirements of the use of this material must be reasonable. In the limited time allowed to most general courses, it seems inadvisable to lay much emphasis on the study of documents which do much to kill interest in the subject if rigidly required, and if not, are seldom read except by the ultra-conscientious student. References should always be selected with the view to interesting the students so they will continue their reading voluntarily both while in the school and after they leave. The reading of a capitulary of Charlemagne, a charter of a medieval town, or the Rule of St. Benedict is valuable for advanced college students, but such documents are not read with avidity by the college freshman, to say nothing of the high school student. But there are sources which can be used to advantage even by very immature students. The works of Plutarch and Herodotus were intended for comparatively untrained minds in their own day, and will interest the modern boys and girls. Letters of such men as Cicero and Luther, and diaries such as Pepys' can be effectively used, and even some documents such as the directions for the medieval ordeals can be made interesting. Selections from a variety of such sources are now readily accessible in collec-

tions compiled for use in connection with certain texts, such as Robinson's "Readings in European History," Cheyney's "Readings in English History," and Ogg's "Source Book of Medieval History." Copies of such source books should be in the school library. In some cases owing to the difficulty of securing an adequate variety of reference books for the library it may be desirable to require every student to have a source book; but surely such sources ought not to be used to the exclusion of standard secondary works. In case either the source book or the secondary works must be omitted, as a rule the secondary material can be more effectively used.

To ensure the thorough perusal of collateral reading, books written in a clear and interesting style should be chosen whenever possible. Absolute historical accuracy and a clear and interesting literary style are strangely difficult to find combined in one single book, but above all, the teachers should shun the work lacking in interest and charm of style, however accurate. Expert opinions sometimes differ regarding certain books and it is only with hesitation that the following suggestions are made. In Ancient History the biographical side should be stressed and material from Herodotus, Xenophon, Demosthenes, Isocrates, Plutarch, Livy, Polybius, Cicero, and Caesar can be effectively used. Interest can be aroused by concentrating considerably upon the careers of Alexander the Great and Julius Caesar as depicted by Benjamin I. Wheeler and Warde Fowler, (Heroes of the Nation Series, Putnam).

In Medieval and Modern History, reading can best be concentrated on a few of the great periods and time can be found for considerable reference work on these by covering the Middle Ages far more rapidly than is usually done, perhaps leaving from two-thirds to three-quarters of the year for the modern period from about 1500 A.D. Two excellent books on the Reformation are Walker, "The Reformation" (Scribner), and Lindsay, "History of the Reformation," (Scribner). Of these the former is the briefer and is marked by excellent organization of material, the latter is longer but much more interesting. Schwill, "Political History of Modern Europe" (Scribner), is very useful especially for good references of moderate length dealing with France and England at the close of the sixteenth century, and England under the Stuarts and in the eighteenth century, but should not be used to the exclusion of more thorough works treating of the French Revolution, Napoleon and the Nineteenth Century Europe. Robinson, "History of Western Europe" devotes eighty-seven pages to this period, Schwill covers it in sixty-eight pages. If Robinson is used as a text-book and a proportionate time is spent on the period, evidently reference books of a more advanced character should be used. Adams, "Growth of the French Nation" (Macmillan) is a very good reference especially on the reigns of Louis XIV and his successors, but there are a number of excellent books dealing especially with the Revolutionary Period which can be used successfully, notably Mathews, "The French Revolution" (Longmans); Rose "Revolutionary and Napoleonic Era" (Putnam); Stephens, "Revolutionary Europe" (Macmillan); and above all, Johnston, "Napoleon" (Holt). These are somewhat detailed for complete reading by high school students, but extracts can well be assigned and the last work by Johnston will be read with eagerness by nearly every high school boy. Excellent material for references of moderate length will be found in Robinson and Beard, "The Development of Modern Europe" (Ginn), and Seignobos, "History of Contemporary Civilization" (Scribner) which are likewise among the very best books of their character dealing with Europe since 1815.

For English History there are a number of well-known books such as those of Terry, Green, Gardiner, Tout and Ransome. The first two of these will be found most interesting to high school students. The epoch of the great con-

stitutional struggle with the Stuart kings is treated in a most interesting way by Trevelyan in his "England under the Stuarts" (Putnam). This work is rather detailed, but parts of it can be very effectively used for reference work. Pollard, "Factors in Modern History" contains a number of very suggestive essays helpful in the interpretation of events in the Tudor and Stuart Period.

In American History and Civil Government the high school student should do more extensive reading than in any of the previously mentioned courses. Here as before, more effective work can be done by spending little time on the colonial period and concentrating attention on the history of the nation. The three books in the Epoch Series and Elson's "History of the United States" (Macmillan) are excellent and can be effectively used throughout the course. For special periods, Fiske, "The Critical Period;" several volumes in the American Statesmen Series of biographies (Houghton, Mifflin) especially Lodge's Washington, Morse's Jefferson, Lodge's Webster, Morse's Lincoln, Hart's Chase, and McCall's Thaddeus Stevens; and G. Hunt's Calhoun in the American Crisis Series (Jacobs, Philadelphia) will be found very useful for reference work. In Civics, Beard, "American Government and Politics" (Macmillan 1910); Reinsch, "Readings on American Federal Government" (Ginn); Benjamin Harrison, "This Country of Ours" (Scribner); Wilson, "Congressional Government" (Houghton, Mifflin); Ashley, "The American Federal State" (Macmillan); and Bryce, "American Commonwealth" (abridged edition) give excellent material which is very interesting, especially the first four works mentioned.

In buying books for a school library, great care should be taken not to scatter the purchases over too large a number of different works. Under ordinary circumstances money spent for a single copy of a first-class reference book might almost as well be given to some poor boy to buy a needed text-book. If the book is worth buying at all, several duplicate copies should be purchased so that there may be a fair chance of every student in the class being able to use it at about the time the book is needed. Of course exceptions to this may occur, especially where there are several books adequately covering the same topics.* The warnings of timid librarians should be disregarded if they object to the purchase of duplicates. Libraries should be for the real use of the students, not for ornamental purposes. In general the best plan is to concentrate attention on the most important epochs in history, buy the two or three best books dealing with each of these epochs, and buy enough duplicates so that they can be effectively used by all the students. If the supply of books is scanty, students will complain that they were not able to get any of the books required and therefore the teacher ought not to expect them to know what they contained. There should be no cause for such complaints. If the supply of books is not sufficient, the reading should not be absolutely required; but, if it is required, no lame excuses should be accepted. Students can be required to hand in lists of their study periods and a schedule arranged indicating at what hours each student is entitled to a certain reference book. Then the teacher can hold his students to use the books at the proper hours. The writer has found this scheme successful in college classes where most of the reading was in two or three reference books.

The attention of students should not be scattered over too great a variety of reference books for a given lesson or series of lessons, but concentrated on the two or three best ones arranged in order of preference with definite references to volume and exact pages. The minimum requirement may well be any single one of the references. This concentration

is necessary because the teacher should have the facts and their interpretation in the references fresh in his mind in order to question effectively. It is almost useless to assign references and then question only on the material in the text book, relying on such schemes as an examination of the signatures at the reserved book desk or on signed statements from students as to how many pages they have read. Unless he is especially interested, the average student does no more work than is required of him. He soon becomes aware of these schemes, and is tempted to lie or cheat if he thinks that it will succeed. The teacher should incorporate into his lesson plan or analysis the important points made by other writers as well as those made by the author of the text-book, and use this material regularly in the daily recitations. When this is done, students will soon learn that they must read if they wish to make a good showing in the class-room.

Students can be stimulated to do individual thinking by occasionally dwelling in class on questions which are in any way debatable. If the teacher can arouse the combativeness of his students, get them to talk freely and forget they are in school in their eagerness to down one another in argument, he has won a great victory. Students who wish to succeed in wordy battles must have the ammunition which good reference books can give. Some such debatable topics will occur to every teacher of history. Some of the following may be suggestive;—the policies of Themistocles vs. those of Aristides, Cimon vs. Themistocles, the strategy of the Persians and Greeks in the Persian Wars and the Spartans and Athenians in the Peloponnesian War, Demosthenes vs. Philip of Macedon, Caesar vs. Pompey, Octavius vs. Cicero, the medieval popes vs. the medieval emperors, Luther's authorization of Philip of Hesse's bigamy, Henry IV of Navarre's change of religion, the character of Henry VIII, the dissolution of the English monasteries, the execution of Charles I of England, the causes of the American Revolution from the English point of view, the originality of Louis XIV's policies, the necessity of the Reign of Terror, "Was the Battle of Waterloo as decisive as it has generally been regarded?", and many others. In American History debatable questions are far easier to find, such as Jefferson's Embargo Policy, the tariff question, the United States Bank, the Mexican War, the slavery question in its various aspects, the right of nullification and secession, the reconstruction policies of Lincoln and Johnson, and of Stevens and the Congressional leaders, the silver question, the trust problem, and many others.

One of the great difficulties with which history teachers have to deal is the fact that high school and college students often think they can get a history lesson by reading the subject matter only once. On the other hand, what more can the conscientious student do? Master the lesson, some one answers; but how know when the lesson is mastered? Other subjects in the curriculum set definite and often difficult tasks; but when the task is done, the student can leave the subject with the satisfaction that comes from a consciousness that his lesson is fully prepared. The definite problems of mathematics and foreign languages cannot be escaped by any sort of a "bluff," the history lesson may. Hence the superficial student often gets his history lesson last if at all; and the conscientious student perhaps reads widely but is temporarily outshone in the class-room by some brilliant "bluffer." The writer has had experience in teaching not only history, but Latin, German, and mathematics in high school and has found that this real difficulty can be overcome by spending the last one fifth of the hour in assigning a number of definite questions on the next lesson, framed as far as possible to cover the main points of fact and interpretation taken up in the collateral references as well as the text-book. These give the history lesson a definite character from which the lazy student cannot readily escape. The answers to the questions may be required to be handed in or

*Of course, these remarks do not apply to the purchase of certain standard sets of books intended to be used for the investigation of special topics by individual students, e. g. Rhodes, History of United States since the compromise of 1850, etc.

copied into a note-book, or better still they may be answered orally in class and then after full discussion the students may be required to write in their note-books complete analyses of answers to the more general questions. For example, after spending a number of days on the Old Regime in France and Europe and the opening years of the French Revolution, the students may be asked to prepare a list of the causes which led France to the Reign of Terror. Then the teacher may extract from the students and put on the blackboard an analysis of the main causes with their sub-headings and require this to be copied into the note-books. In the same way the class may be required to prepare a detailed analysis of the causes which led to the Civil Wars and the establishment of the Commonwealth and the Protectorate. One of the most valuable things a student can be taught is to make a good analysis and historical material can be used very effectively for this purpose. So far as possible students should be taught to put their notes on collateral reading into analysis form for submission. Of course this can be done only gradually and narrative notes are better than none. But after all this, can the teacher depend on these notes as evidence that the student has done his reference reading in a satisfactory manner? So many laggards copy their reading notes from more enterprising classmates without being reprimanded, that the value of such notes as evidence of work well done may be doubted. Given a hundred or more note-books, a few hundred examination papers, a teacher already nervous and tired, and the usual result is that the note-books are hardly more than glanced at. There is no question as to the value of note-book work, but it should not be unduly emphasized to the infinite burden of the teacher.

There remains one other device for securing the reading

of references. A student may wholly neglect his reading for a day or two. The work goes on and perhaps he thinks his teacher knows nothing of the deficiency. Unless he feels sure he will be found out, that reading will probably never be done; but, if an occasional half hour is devoted to writing answers to questions on the assigned references, he will be spurred on to study his history lessons as thoroughly as those in mathematics or foreign languages. Of course such questions should be worded differently from those assigned in advance, and then the answer will show what the student has really mastered, not the much greater amount which he may have copied from his neighbor's note-book. But the reading of such papers takes much time and the teacher is already overworked. To this may be urged the facts that by such quizzes the teacher learns exactly what the students are doing as he cannot from the note-books, that these papers may be short, and that the records of these with the class discussions give such a clear idea of what each student has done that the labor of scrutinizing the final examination papers is greatly reduced.

All these devices require hard work on the part of the teacher, but they make for efficiency in teaching and give that feeling of satisfaction in one's work which is the highest reward of the true teacher. Yet they will surely fail to secure the best results unless the teacher possesses a lively human interest in every individual student, unless he is willing to study his students and appeal to them in such a way as to get and keep their good-will and stimulate them to do really individual thinking. Many a young mind can be aroused to independent activity by an enthusiastic teacher of history and the dearth of really thinking men and women be thereby reduced.

The New Standard of College Teaching*

BY PRESIDENT WILLIAM DE WITT HYDE, BOWDOIN COLLEGE.

Those who heard President Woodrow Wilson at the Dartmouth inauguration felt that they were listening to a prophet. It is idle for Harvard, Yale, and other institutions to claim that his preceptorial conference is merely their quiz section under a more pretentious name. It is an entirely different thing: different not merely in degree, reducing the number of students from twenty or more to five or less; but different in kind; changing the relation from that of examiner and examined to that of teacher who is learning the needs of his students and how to meet them, and learner who is teaching his teacher how to teach. As this method hitherto has been confined mainly to a single university, and has been there dependent on a large special fund, it may be interesting to read the first report of its working in a college small enough to be able to afford out of its regular funds to give elementary classes this costly kind of teaching.

This first report by Prof. Allen Johnson, of the department of history and political science, is as follows:

After some eight weeks' trial of the conference scheme in the department of history and political science, we are prepared to present some of its aspects. I will state first just how the conferences are organized.

*This article appeared in *The Nation* (N. Y.) Feb. 3, 1910 (Vol. 90, p. 107) and is here reprinted with the permission of President Hyde and of *The Nation*.

The class of seniors in government is divided into five groups of five students each. These groups meet weekly in our seminar room, at the library, for a half-hour conference. In addition to chapters in Lowell's "Government of England," readings have been assigned in Lee's "Life of Queen Victoria," Churchill's "Life of Lord Randolph Churchill," and Morley's "Life of Gladstone." So far as possible the discussions have been made to turn upon phases of English public life. The chapters relating to Gladstone's education gave an excellent opportunity for an excursus into Oxford undergraduate life as presented by John Corbin in his "American at Oxford." Comparisons and contrasts with our American undergraduate life were suggested and eagerly debated by members of the several conferences.

The class in History 7 (American history) is divided into nine conference groups averaging four members each. The readings have hitherto been in American biography. Washington, Jefferson, Adams, Hamilton, Jay, Morris, Madison, Ellsworth, were the characters first studied. In each case a good biography was read, as well as portions of the letters and public addresses of these typical statesmen of the Revolutionary period.

This program is somewhat ambitious and has proved a heavy burden, for besides these seven hours of conference work, I have continued to lecture to each class three times a week. Indeed, I find that the preparation for a conference is quite as arduous as for a lecture. Even a book read years ago must be skimmed over so that its salient features may be made the subject of discussion in conference. It requires no

little tact to draw out the men and make them do the talking.

Besides his three lectures every week Mr. Scott has seven hours of conference work. The number of students in his groups ranges from one or two to six, according to the readings assigned. So far as possible, by individual conferences at the beginning of the semester, Mr. Scott endeavored to form an estimate of the capacity and interests of each student; and on the basis of this inventory he has made his groups and chosen his books. The following works are now being read, in addition to regular class work: Taine's "Ancient Régime," Saint Amand's "Marie Antoinette," Cunningham's "Outlines of English Industrial History," Tallentyre's "Life of Voltaire," Monroe's "History of Education," Koser's "Friedrich der Grosse als Kronprinz," "Essays in Anglo-American Legal History," Coolidge's "United States as a World Power."

Mr. Scott and I are convinced that from a pedagogical point of view this conference scheme is admirable. I quote from a brief statement which Mr. Scott has drawn up for my use: "It is sometimes possible," he writes, "under the conference system, to connect historical work with what will later be the student's professional interests. For example, the students who expect to study law are reading 'Essays in Anglo-American Legal History,' in order to get a background for later work in the law school. Many students entering the law school are bewildered because they are unfamiliar with legal terminology. Readings such as those given can in some measure obviate these difficulties. Then, too, law should be studied in the light of its evolu-

tion in order to determine underlying principles. I have one student who expects to study in Germany. I am reading with him Koser's 'Frederick the Great as Crown Prince,' thus correlating historical with language study. German manners and customs are often discussed at these conferences. Some students expecting to enter the ministry have been studying the life of Voltaire, who, as the arch-enemy of the church, has interested them."

Mr. Scott has touched upon a point which we are keeping constantly in view; viz., the coordination of historical with other college work. So far as possible we are trying to make these readings contributory to the educational work of the college. One of the most encouraging results has been the disposition of some students to bring information acquired elsewhere to bear upon their historical readings, and to interpret ideas in terms of their own experience. It may seem a far cry from Virgil to Jefferson; but the effort of one youth to prove that the Father of Democracy must have read the Eclogues was good evidence of his desire to coordinate his academic experiences. We have been repeatedly gratified to find students reading surreptitiously more than was asked, from sheer interest in the subject. One of Mr. Scott's students asked to have his readings changed, because he was going to read the book assigned anyway, and he wished to read something bearing upon legal history. I have found several students reading the letters of Hamilton and Madison and Jefferson, because they were interested in these personalities. This is no small achievement, if, indeed, it is the outcome of discussions in conference.

It is odd to find how reluctant students are to express publicly among their fellows ideas which may seem pedantic. The student who suggested the Virgil-Jefferson theory immediately blushed and felt called upon to apologize for his audacity. Learning is evidently almost completely dissociated in the minds of most students from the chief concerns of academic life. Here is where the conference may accomplish much. It follows that if the best results are to be secured, the number of students in a conference should be small. Our experience leads us to believe that when a conference group numbers more than five, it becomes simply a quiz section—a danger which we have constantly to guard against.

Professor Johnson's report itself indicates the cost in time and labor involved in this change; and the gains in interest and knowledge resulting from it. The cost in money for the transformation of these three courses is simply the cost of one additional instructor, which is for this year \$1,200, but would permanently be \$2,000 or \$2,500; since men who can do this work well are much more rare than men who can give formal lectures; and one who succeeds should be promoted and retained at all costs. The application of this method to the small college permits one great improvement over the method unavoidable in a great university. In the small college the professor himself does his own conference or preceptorial work; and the preceptor is himself the lecturer to his whole class. In a university with classes numbered by hundreds that is obviously impossible; the lecturer and the preceptor for the same class are two different persons, with different degrees of maturity, experience, and salary.

I have called this not a new education, but a new standard of education. No institution is rich enough to put all its teaching on this individual, intimate, vital basis. Having some other things to do besides teaching, I cannot afford to teach my own class of sixty in this way. But I can at least confess that my teaching as a result is not first-rate. All teaching that deals exclusively with men in large groups is second, third, or fourth-rate. If it is merely lectures from day to day, with an occasional written examination, it is fourth-rate—D, if we apply the scale by which we measure students' work. If it supplements the lecture by regular, frequent written work in and out of the class, it would rank as third-rate, or C. If, alternating with the lecture, or as an essential part of it, the teaching of a class includes a free exchange of questions and answers from both sides and a genuine discussion in which all thought of examination is lost sight of by both parties, it may rank as second-rate—what corresponds to B work on the part of the student. But from now on the highest mark, or A, must include as an essential feature the costly personal work where teacher meets learner, man meets man, in groups so small that formal barriers are broken down; individuality is recognized, and teacher and learner touch each other through their common contact with the subject taught.

Some subjects need this method much more than others. The sciences, through the laboratory method, and English, have it largely already. Formal subjects, like mathematics and the elements of languages need it less than other subjects; because here apprehension of particular facts accessible to all counts for so much more, and personal appreciation of great principles and interests counts for so much less.

The subjects which need the preceptorial method most and in which it will bear the richest fruits, are history and government, economics and sociology, literature and philosophy. An institution in which these half-dozen great humanities should be taught in lectures supplemented by conferences by carefully-selected, adequately-paid teachers, of the requisite learning, industry, sympathy, tact, and patience, would be a better kind of institution, whether a great university or a small college, than any now existing. It will take a generation of generous benefaction and wise administration to put any university or college permanently and soundly on such a basis. But it is something to see and recognize the new standard; to measure present failure honestly by it; to measure progress not by the multiplication of new courses, but by the intensity and vitality of instruction in the fundamental courses we have already; to lift one department at a time up to this higher plane—in short, here and there to give to the institution that teaches as well as to the student who is taught a merited rank of A.

Recent History

Japan and Korea

BY JOHN HAYNES, PH.D., DORCHESTER HIGH SCHOOL, BOSTON, MASS.

Since her war with Russia, Japan has been unquestionably one of the great Powers, and from this time on we must always consider her in tracing the course of world history. Her great war left the country in an exhausted condition. Taxes are heavy, and there has recently been a deficit equivalent to nearly \$40,000,000 annually. As in Europe and America the proposal for a progressive income tax is heard. Recently the country's financial policy has been directed by those who represent the business classes and favor retrenchment while they oppose heavy expenses, especially for excessive armaments.

Though she has a parliament of two houses, Japan has not yet attained responsible government. There is still a group of men called the "elder statesmen" who are at times a cabinet above the cabinet. In the election of 1908 the Constitutional Political Association (Seiyu-Kai) secured an absolute majority in the lower house of the Diet—the first time in the history of the country that any party had secured a majority. Through the influence of the "elder statesmen," Prime Minister Saionji, though he belonged to this party, was dismissed and Marquis Katsura, the leader of the Daido or Conservative Party, became Premier. This action was taken for the express purpose of indicating that the cabinet is not responsible to the lower house of the Diet, and is even more significant from the fact that the Premier's party had the smallest representation of any party. Besides the ones already mentioned there is a Commercial party and a party called Progressists. The majority of the nation are indifferent to political questions. Cajolery and bribery are common. There are men known as "election brokers" who collect promises of votes and sell these votes *en bloc*. In 1909 twenty-three members of the House of Representatives were convicted of receiving bribes from the Japanese Sugar Company.

During the present year a new tariff bill has become a law, which makes large increases in the duties on imported articles. Thus there is seen in Japan the same tendency, which is observable in other countries, toward the strengthening of the "protective system." The new law cannot fail to make heavier the burden on the Japanese consumer. The schedules may in practice, however, be largely modified, for the law provides for reciprocity by means of granting lower duties on imports from those countries which grant similar favors to Japanese goods. The new law will be especially disadvantageous to British exporters, for the fiscal system of their na-

tion as well as her small imports from Japan, leave her with no favors to grant. Unless the policy of our own government should be reversed and reciprocity adopted, the new law will prove a handicap upon American exportation to Japan. This law will not go into full effect until next year when existing trade treaties will expire. Then Japan will for the first time enjoy the full international status, for the treaties then to expire are of the nature commonly forced by powerful nations upon weaker countries, and violate the fiscal autonomy of Japan.

The year 1910 has seen the territory and population of Japan increased by the formal annexation of Korea, which will hereafter be officially known as Cho-sen. When Japan began war against Russia in 1904 she promised "to guarantee the independence and territorial integrity of the Korean Empire." Notwithstanding this promise when she made her alliance with Great Britain in August, 1905, a clause was inserted in the treaty whereby "paramount political, military and economic interests" in Korea were recognized and in the Treaty of Portsmouth a month later Russia admitted the same thing. Since then the entire policy of Japan has been directed toward the extermination of Korean nationality. Shortly after the close of the war with Russia the control of the foreign

affairs of Korea was placed in the government of Japan and a Resident General was stationed at Seoul. In 1907 the Korean Emperor was forced to grant to the Resident General full legislative and executive powers. The Japanese have since ruled the country with painful disregard for the sentiments of the Koreans who were powerless to resist the ruthless course of their masters except by sporadic assassinations. Prince Ito, the father of modern Japan and the man who, as Resident General, had deprived the Korean Government of the last vestige of real power, in the fall of 1909 fell a victim to a Korean assassin. The final act of what was really the Japanese conquest of Korea came on August 29, 1910, when the treaty was promulgated by which the sovereignty of Korea passed to the Emperor of Japan. In proclaiming the treaty the Japanese Government says that "a spirit of suspicion and misgiving dominates the whole peninsula," a fact at which one is not surprised, and that annexation is necessary "to promote the prosperity and welfare of the Koreans and at the same time ensure the safety and repose of foreign residents." The right of extraterritoriality enjoyed by citizens of other nations resident in Korea is to cease and all cases are to be in the jurisdiction of Japanese tribunals. Japan promises, for a period of ten years, not to increase existing

taxes on imports into Korea and to allow all existing commercial and shipping privileges to continue. Korea's nationality has probably ceased to exist for all time, but it by no means follows that Japan will always possess the peninsula now acquired. In the near future she is likely to have a rival for its possession in Russia or China. By this annexation she has taken the momentous step of abandoning her insular position. Her frontier is now far away from Tokio on the mainland of Asia. However, it is the opinion of the "London Times" that the conclusion which has been reached has been inevitable since China was compelled fifteen years ago to renounce her claims, and Japan made herself responsible for internal reforms in the Hermit Kingdom. Without deciding that the course of Japan is thereby justified, one may feel sure that the good order and economic advancement of the Korean people will be promoted by what has occurred. Much has already been accomplished toward modernizing the country. Its development will occupy the energies of the Japanese for years to come and the new province of Cho-sen will furnish an outlet for Japanese emigrants who would otherwise desire to come to the United States or Canada. The latter countries are likely to have the problem of Japanese immigration greatly simplified.

History in the Secondary Schools

European History: The Age of Louis XIV.

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., BARRINGER HIGH SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

Some Practical Difficulties.

The field of *Kulturgeschichte*, as the Germans call it, has been somewhat neglected here in America. This is especially true in our teaching of history to secondary students. This apparent disregard of a very important phase of history may be explained in part by the difficulty of securing the necessary material for its effective presentation. It is much easier, for example, to reiterate the fact that "from the court of Louis XIV, flowed out influences far more potent than those which followed the feet of his soldiers or the coaches of his diplomatists," than to develop this idea for a class out of the events of the period, showing clearly how French manners, French dress, French art, French literature, French preaching, and French science "became the property and the models of civilized Europe." A certain amount of illustrative material is apparently a *sine qua non* as a medium for conveying these ideas. An examination of the various textbooks does not reveal a great amount of this at the disposal of the teacher. No single book contains more than three illustrations at the most.

Whitcomb, Bourne and Myers contain pictures of Versailles; Robinson, and Robinson and Beard, a picture of Louis XIV's bedchamber in the palace; Harding, a picture of the Grand Trianon; and Adams, an example of Gobelin tapestry. Almost every book contains a portrait of Louis XIV, and one or two have portraits of the celebrities of the time. Not a single extract from the French writers is to be found here. In lieu of these the student is confronted with a list of names, followed by a number of titles which convey little if any meaning. When the instructor turns from the text-book to seek other sources of information as to the literary activities of the age, he is surprised to find that he must gather his extracts from a series of translations; that no one has done for French literature what has so many times been attempted for the literature of Greece and Rome, namely the culling of choice extracts and the assembling of these in a single volume of convenient size for class-room use. Robinson's Readings and Robinson and Beard's Readings contain a few extracts, but they are altogether inadequate for the purpose, as

they have to do mainly with the personality of the king and his military exploits.

The Reign of Louis XIV as an Epoch in Culture.

The reign of Louis XIV may be made to yield many interesting and important lessons, if it is approached as an epoch in the history of civilization. Its possibilities may be better appreciated by passing rapidly over the achievements of the age in art, in literature and in the general advancement of culture. Every student is impressed with the warlike character of the period. If he would really penetrate the secret of the great king's success in these struggles with the powers of Western Europe he must familiarize himself with the work of Colbert, Louvois and Vauban. Colbert by his systematic administration of the finances, Louvois by his "organization of victory," and Vauban by his contributions to the art of war, not only made the success of the French armies possible, but contributed in no small measure to the general advancement of mankind by their various reforms. (Seignobos, *History of Mediaeval and Modern Civilization*, pp. 417-418, describes in some detail the changes in

the military system which made the French army the model for the rest of Europe.) In architecture there were such great undertakings as the palaces of Versailles, Marly and the Grand Trianon, the Church of the Val de Grace, the Hotel des Invalides, the colonnade of the Louvre, and the gates of St. Martin and St. Denis in the city of Paris. Versailles was perhaps the *chef d'oeuvre*, involving an expenditure of \$200,000,000, occupying twenty years in its construction, and employing a force of workmen variously estimated at from thirty to sixty thousand. Here and elsewhere the painters, Mignard and Le Brun, the sculptor, Girardon, and the celebrated landscape gardener, Le Notre, worthily portrayed the glories of the reign and the power and majesty of *Le grand monarque*. The furniture, too, bore witness to the artistic taste of the age, giving birth to a style which bears the name of Louis Quatorze, and still has its imitators. In his encouragement of industry, Colbert established the tapestry works at Beauvois and at Paris, making the Gobelins famous throughout Europe. It was at this time that the French Academy of Painting and Sculpture was reorganized. The Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres was founded in 1663, and three years later Colbert conceived the idea of a Royal Academy of Sciences, which included among its charter members men like Descartes, Pascal and Gassendi. A Royal Academy of Music was also founded, and prepared the way for the development of the French opera. In 1672 Louis XIV completed an observatory in Paris. Although France did not produce an astronomer of the rank of Newton, her scientists achieved success in other fields, notably Mariotte, Papin and Tournefort. The mere mention of the names of Molière, Racine, La Fontaine and Bossuet suggest the great success of the men of letters. Finally, the French Academy, so famous in our own day, received no little encouragement in its work, doing much at this time toward fixing the character of the French language. A courtesy and a self-restraint, which had its origin earlier in the Hotel de Rambouillet, and was more or less foreign to Frenchmen of the older generation likewise, began to find favor among the upper classes. Every petty German princeling built himself a Versailles, and strove to imitate the liberality and prodigality of *Le Roi Soleil*. In short, "France was to Europe what he himself [Louis XIV] was to France. She gave the tone to European society, she laid down the canons of taste in literature and the arts, she spoke the decisive word in politics."

Illustrative Material Desirable.

Someone has said that in order to understand the reign of Louis XIV, one must become acquainted with Versailles. This does not imply merely a certain familiarity with the palace and its environs, but

rather with the life of which it became the center, and the rules which Louis XIV there put into practice for the government of France. Pictures of the buildings, however, and of the park which surrounds them, and of some of the rooms, as the Hall of Mirrors and the bedchamber of the king, will not only greatly assist the student in visualizing the scenes in the life of the monarch, but will throw much light upon the character of the artistic achievements of the age. These should be supplemented, if possible, by a view of the Hotel des Invalides, with its characteristic dome. (This building in general construction resembles the Church of the Val de Grace. Both are the work of Mansart, and a picture of either will illustrate the style of the architect.) Examples of Gobelin tapestry and of Louis XIV furniture, reproductions of one or two of the paintings, and the sculptured groups in the park at Versailles, and a picture of the colonnade of the Louvre—pronounced one of the finest examples of the style of Louis XIV—would furnish a class with the necessary material for forming some conception of the meaning of the phrase *Le siècle de Louis Quatorze*.

Methods of Securing Illustrative Material.

There remains an even more pertinent query as to how much of this material may be secured. Considerable use can be made of the illustrations in the text-books where these exist. It is by no means easy to collect at short notice all the material desirable. If the class has access to a public library, even though it may be a small one, much assistance may be rendered by the library authorities in collecting such material if they are given a little encouragement. Some of the libraries in the larger towns and cities have so-called art departments, where they make a specialty of furnishing schools and interested persons with illustrations. These are drawn from every conceivable source. If they are given sufficient warning they will often surprise the teacher by the wealth of material which they have to offer. These pictures are pasted on uniform mounts and add much to effective class-room presentation. As an illustration of what is actually being accomplished, the following pictures were submitted to the writer by the Newark Public Library to illustrate the decorative art of the age. (The mounts were a cheap cardboard, size 17½ x 13 inches and cost about a cent each.)

1. Elements of decoration taken from *Le Pautre and Bérain*. (Colored.)
2. Barock of XVII and XVIII centuries. (Colored.)
3. Specimens of the work of Le Bois.
4. Table with ormolu mounts.
5. Mirror and commode. Date about 1680.
6. Chair of Louis XIV style.
7. Cabinet of Louis XIV style.
8. Doorway and panels.

9. Shell casket, the lid mounted with chased ormolu by Boule.

10. Gobelin tapestry of 17th century.

11. "May"—a Gobelin tapestry after a 16th century design.

Illustrations in Books.

It may prove a somewhat difficult matter to secure pictures which can be mounted separately. The teacher may be forced to rely mainly upon books, which are not so easy to use in the classroom. A picture of the fountains at Versailles may be secured from the Cosmos Pictures Co., and reproductions of two paintings by Mignard from the Perry Pictures Co. The same firm publishes views of the Tomb of Richelieu (by Girardou), the Statue of Louis XIV (Paris), and the Louvre. The Metropolitan Museum of Art in its supplement to the Bulletin of March, 1910, describing the new wing devoted to the decorative arts, contains two views of its new Louis XIV room. The following books contain a wealth of illustrative material, besides much useful information:

Nolhac, Pierré de. Versailles and the Trianons, with illustrations in color by René Binet.

Farmer, J. E. Versailles and the Court under Louis XIV. (The illustrations are particularly good. Those of Versailles are from photographs; those taken from the paintings of the period are many of them reproduced by permission of Braun, Clement & Co.)

Strange, T. A. Historical Guide to French Interiors, Furniture, Decoration, Woodwork, and Allied Art. (This contains sixteen hundred cuts, covering the work of every artist of note, showing examples of the furniture, tapestries and designs used in decoration.)

Saglio, Andre. French Furniture. (This contains only a few illustrations, but these are well selected. The chapter on Louis XIV is especially recommended.)

Stoddard, John L. Lectures. Vol. V. Paris.

Martin. Stories of Paris in History and Letters. Vol. I. (Note particularly the chapter on Molière and his friends.)

Reference has already been made to the difficulty of securing extracts from the literature. Brander Mathews in his Great Plays, French and German, has translated Racine's *Athalie* and Molière's *Tartuffe*. Molière's plays have been translated by Van Laun. Translations of the plays of Molière and Racine are also to be found in the Bohn series. Warner's Library will likewise furnish some of the material needed.

Reading References.

The following books are recommended for the cultural aspect of the reign:

Grant, French Monarchy (1483-1789), Vol. II. Chap. X on Louis XIV and Colbert.

Kitchin, History of France, Vol. III, pp. 157-164, 208-213.

Wakeman, Europe 1598-1715, pp. 187-193, 195-200.

Hassall, Louis XIV, pp. 124-130, 230, 234, 286-288, 292-296, 300, 313-314.

Cambridge Modern History, Vol. V, pp. 10-19, and Chapter III on French Seventeenth Century Literature and its European Influence.

Seignobos, History of Mediaeval and Modern Civilization, pp. 413-433.

For the literature of the period, either Dowden, History of French Literature or Saintsbury, Short History of French Literature, may be found useful. Muther, His-

tory of Painting, Vol. II, contains a well-written section on the Age of Louis XIV; Short, History of Sculpture, pp. 233-239, sums up the work of the sculptors.

Time Allotment and General Plan of Presentation.

At least two recitations may profitably be spent on this phase of the reign. As the text-books do not treat these topics in any detail, it may be found necessary to make them the basis for special reports, as, for example, one on the work of Louvois and Vauban, another on the Decora-

tive Art, etc. The teacher should be ready to illustrate and drive home the points which may be brought out by these reports. A sense of unity may be realized throughout the discussion if these facts are closely related to the personality and aims of the king. If *Le Grande Monarque* did not actually conceive these artistic creations or set on foot the various activities which characterize the age, he at least was wise enough or conceited enough to give them encouragement and to impress upon the world at large his responsibility for these results.

Roman History: The Struggle between the Plebeians and Patricians

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., BARRINGER HIGH SCHOOL, NEWARK, N. J.

Constitutional History in the Secondary School.

It has come to be very much the fashion in these days to omit altogether or to skim over very lightly such inherently difficult questions as those which involve constitutional development. The mere fact that the child is more or less unfamiliar with the governmental system of which he is himself a part complicates the problem for the teacher, as there is very little in his experience to which these details can be related. An unusual effort is therefore required on the part of the instructor if he would secure anything like an intelligent understanding of such efforts as culminated in the establishment of the Cleisthenian democracy in Athens, or those which gave final shape to the governmental system of republican Rome. It is always best in discussing such questions to avoid technicalities and insist merely upon the broad general outlines of these changes. Granting that such is the aim of the instructor, sufficient detail must be presented to secure the lodgment of the idea which lies behind it. This is just where it is possible for the teacher to err by allowing the class to get the impression that the details are comparatively unessential. In establishing these concepts it is necessary to start with the particular, and it is often the very absence of these particulars that makes it so difficult for the teacher to secure results in the class room. A carefully prepared outline of such material is essential as a working plan for the student. Otherwise, he will be more or less at a loss as to just what to study and will probably overlook the very points which are most important.

Two Distinct Lines of Development.

In presenting the struggle for equality, one of the first questions which must be settled is that of the general scheme for the treatment of the period of which it is a part; namely, that from 509 to 264 B. C. This period is perhaps one of the most difficult and, at the same time, the least interesting within the entire range of ancient history. Two plans are open to the teacher; both are to be found in the text-books, and both have their respective merits. The first

is to follow the strictly chronological order and discuss the plebeian struggle for political and social recognition in close connection with the conquest of Italy; the other is to keep the external history as distinct as possible from the internal development. This latter plan has more to recommend it on the basis of actual class-room experience. The student, however, should be cautioned over and over again—at the outset of the discussion and from time to time as it progresses—that he is following one of two contemporary lines of development. This may be made more emphatic by a simple diagram on the blackboard representing the period of the kings as a single line which separated into two with their expulsion in 509 B. C. Let this diagram be kept on the board for the entire time devoted to these two topics, and as the important steps in the process of equalization are brought out in class, let them be written across the line which represents that particular phase of Rome's development. When the class is ready for the other topic the instructor can add appropriate headings to suggest the gradual extension of Roman authority over the peninsula. In this way the student will be assisted materially in grasping the characteristic features of Rome's development during this epoch, and will, at the same time, appreciate the close connection between her external and internal history. The connection between this struggle and the regal period will perhaps appear closer if, as has been suggested, this topic is given the right of way.

The Outline.

The following outline suggests the material which the student is expected to have at his command in the class room, and the general plan for its treatment at the hands of the teacher:

The struggle between the orders for equality. 509-286 B. C.

- a. Rights of plebeians and patricians.
- b. The Lex Valeria.
- c. The first secession and the tribunes and aediles, 493 B. C.
- d. The Decemvirate and its effects—Valerio-Horatian Laws, 451-449 B. C.

e. The Lex Canuleia, 445 B. C.

f. Struggle for the consulship, 444-366 B. C.

(1) Consular tribunes.

(2) Intrigues of Cassius, Mallius and Camillus.

(3) Admission of plebeians to consulship—Licinian Laws, 367 B. C.

(4) Praetorship and curule aediles.

g. Equality in the sacred colleges (Lex Ogulina, 296 B. C.)

h. Lex Hortensia and creation of a plebeian assembly (Comitia Tributa).

Two recitation periods should prove adequate for covering these points. In assigning the first lesson the natural break is at 445 B. C., with the passage of the Canuleian Law, as will appear later. This may seem like an unequal division of the topic, but incidentally it will enable the teacher on the second day to test the class on the points already covered.

The Development of the Topic.

The instructor begins by recalling the origin of the plebeian class, and having established this point to his satisfaction and brought out the fact that the patricians differed from the plebeians in the enjoyment of certain rights and privileges denied to the less favored class, proceeds to classify these (as in Morey's Rome, page 64, or in Myers' Rome, Section 16), recognizing five rights, three political in their nature, two social or private. Now the class is ready for an inquiry into the exact status of the plebeians in 509 B. C. They discover that they already enjoyed one private right, that of trade, and one political right, that of voting, but possibly do not appreciate the fact that the latter right is restricted to voting in one of three voting bodies, the centuriata, and even there had comparatively little meaning, if the method of voting be carefully analyzed. The question then arises as to the effect upon their condition of the overthrow of the kings. Were they better or worse off as a class? This will perhaps occasion some discussion if the class have in mind the Valerian Law which extended to them—again in part only—the right of appeal.

The next question which suggests itself has to do with the causes or occasion for the long and bitter struggle which followed, which terminated on at least one occasion, if not in two, in an attempt on the part of the plebeians to withdraw altogether from the body politic. In raising this query the teacher can inculcate a valuable lesson as to the power of a government to remedy evils which are essentially social and economic, rather than governmental in character. At this point it would seem better to draw out merely the causes and the occasion for the first secession, namely the economic grievances and particularly the question of debt than to attempt to cover the entire field of causes. As the condition of the plebeians showed few signs of improvement, there soon followed the demand for written laws, whereby justice might be secured as between rich and poor. The teacher might well pause here to emphasize the legal mindedness of the Roman and his ultimate contribution to the world's progress in his splendid system of jurisprudence. (The codification of the law should be regarded as strengthening and confirming the rights already secured.) The tyranny of the Decemvirate afforded the plebeians the greatest opportunity which had thus far presented itself of remedying abuses, and the result was the promulgation of the Valerio-Horatian Laws, which

were followed only four years later by that great equalizing measure known as the Canuleian Law.

The crisis has now been reached. Practically every right was now enjoyed, except that of holding the highest offices, as those of dictator, consul and membership in the sacred colleges. This did not mean however, the final settlement of all the vexed questions which had arisen in Rome during this period or the one which immediately preceded it. People would get in debt in spite of the Roman *seisachtheia* of 493 B. C., and as time passed and the Romans plunged into one war after the other, the land problem became more and more acute and pressed for solution. This latter question, which is one of the most perplexing of all those calling for explanation, can be deferred for the time being in discussing the events prior to 445 B. C. It relates itself closely to the Licinian Laws. The student's attention should be directed all along to the fact that wherever possible the patricians compromised and, upon finding that they were losing ground in one direction, sought to regain it in another; as, for example, by the creation of new offices open only to members of the privileged order.

If the exact terms of the compromises effected on each occasion and the rights secured thereby are indicated in brief form

on the blackboard as the struggle proceeds, the student will note down these points for future reference. They will prove useful later, in enabling him to arrive at a better understanding of the complicated, makeshift form of government which was the occasion for so much turmoil and confusion in the days of Gracchi.

The passage of the Licinian Laws marked the climax of the struggle and should be emphasized in their three-fold character, offering solutions for three questions which still remained unsettled; namely, that of debt, the public land and eligibility to the consulship. The other measures constitute a sort of anti-climax and do not require much detailed treatment. If three recitations can be devoted to the topic, the third might be spent in a general review of these steps. The class could be asked to bring to the recitation a table of the different officers, with the dates of their creation, duties, etc., adding also the assemblies and the senate. (See Morey, page 72, for a similar suggestion followed by references.)

Literature.

In addition to such text-books as Botsford, Morey, Myers, West and Wolfson, see Shuckburgh, History of Rome, Chapters VIII and XIII; How and Leigh, History of Rome, Chapters VI, VIII, IX, XII; and Seignobos, History of Ancient Civilization, pp. 222-225.

Causes of Dispute between the Stuart Kings and Parliament

BY M. H. LUCEY, PH.D., DE WITT CLINTON HIGH SCHOOL, NEW YORK CITY.

Like every other momentous disturbance in the life of a people, the epoch-making struggle between the Stuarts and Parliament has its foot deeply imbedded in the growing organism of national life. Looked at casually, all we see is on one side a stubborn king and on the other an equally stubborn parliament, falling out over current issues. Examined more closely we are forced to the conclusion that the conflict was inevitable—that whether or not the Stuarts had come to the throne, the matter was bound to come to a head. What, then, were those deeper underlying causes which made the conflict inevitable?

First, the growth of the kingly power. Since the time of Henry VII the monarchy had gradually become the dominant factor in English politics. Even in the time of Henry VII, himself, so completely did the king monopolize the government that Parliament met only five times during his entire reign, and only once during the last twelve years. By the time of Henry VIII this conception of the power of the crown was so firmly established that the king was enabled to steer the Church into a new channel—was able to have himself proclaimed and accepted as the supreme head of the Church of England. Mary, in her turn, was able to compel Parliament to make a right about face in this same matter—have the two houses of Parliament

once more recognize the Pope as the head of the Church, repeal the acts which caused the breach, and finally go down on their knees and receive forgiveness for their past misdeeds from the Pope's legate. To such an extent, in fact, did the power of the crown grow during this time that the period is regularly referred to as that of the Tudor Absolutism.

Let us now look at the other side of the shield. Coincident with the rise of the Tudors the power of Parliament declined, but at no time were they entirely extinguished. For instance, although Henry VIII settled the succession to the throne, yet he did so by permission of Parliament. During the time of Elizabeth we note the wonderful activity of the human mind reaching out in all directions, questioning, challenging. This was a time when men were breaking away from the leading strings of authority and asserting their own rights of individuality. Not only in matters of the spirit was there an increase in wealth and power, but in social and economic conditions as well. This spirit of increased independence, in the end, began to be reflected in Parliament, and cropped out several times, even during Elizabeth's time. Thus, in the latter part of her reign, the long-standing grievances of Licenses and Monopolies, from which commerce was suffering, were pushed to a definite and suc-

cessful conclusion, and the queen was forced to yield.

James, when he ascended the English throne, had already reigned for many years over the turbulent Scots. Here he had struggled to secure and to maintain the royal prerogative first against his rebellious barons, then against the General Assembly of the Scottish Church. A glimpse into this period of his life, usually neglected by most teachers, will repay the student who seeks to trace his later career.

With a Stuart on the throne the two opposing forces, king and Parliament, drew nearer together. The teacher may well classify the immediate causes of the conflict for his class under the following heads:

1. Favorites.
2. Foreign Policy.
3. Financial Questions.
4. Religion.

1. The habit of having favorites arose from the Stuart conception of kingship. In this connection, it is well for the teacher to read a short extract to the class from the works of James himself. One day I opened a recitation on the life of James with, "Listen to the words of a king." At this there was a general laugh, but I went on and read for a few minutes James' own words on his theory of kingship. Beyond

a doubt the reading made an impression on the class, for a few weeks later I was showered with clippings from newspapers giving the views on the Divine Right of Kings, as propounded by that august sovereign of Europe, Kaiser Wilhelm II.

The policy of appointing ministers from the lower ranks of the people, who were bound to the king by personal ties, and whose position did not depend on birth, but on the favor of the king, naturally arose from the determination of the Stuarts to conduct a personal government. By enforcing this fact, the teacher can bring the class to realize how this question of favorites was a burning one during the reigns of James I and Charles I, and how it ceased to be of importance during the reigns of the other two Stuarts.

2. It was the misfortune of the Stuarts, even in their foreign policy, to want those things to which Parliament was opposed. James wished to marry his son to a princess of Spain, and later did succeed in making an alliance with the reigning house of France. Then, again, James' policy was one of peace, while the nation favored war in aid of the struggling Protestants of the Continent.

The policy of Charles in his early years was one of war, but this likewise met with opposition. It was felt that the quarrels of Charles with France and Spain were personal quarrels in which the nation had no part. Therefore, Parliament was reluctant to vote funds to meet expenses. This lack of money led in turn to such illegal acts on the part of Charles as billeting of soldiers, forced loans, trials by martial law—grievances which formed the bulk of the Petition of Rights.

While Charles II, too, in his foreign policy, strove for more purely personal ends than did any of his successors, and, in fact, was a traitor to his country, yet he so covered his policies by secret arrangement and treaties, that he came to no clash with Parliament on account of them.

3. Students will best comprehend the financial troubles of the Stuart period by noting that it was a time like the present of rising prices; that even if the Stuarts had been careful, economical administrators as the first of the Tudors was, they would have found difficulty in meeting the expenses of the government from the ordinary revenues. Instead, they indulged their lavish, extravagant habits—habits which, in the time of James I, brought the

charges of the crown in time of peace to a point nearly as high as they had been in Elizabeth's reign in times of war. Therefore, when James or his son appealed to Parliament for funds, Parliament, time and again, before granting supplies, took up their grievances, and were dissolved for their presumption. Thus Charles, during his period of personal rule, was finally driven to the dubious expedients of ship money, monopolies, and distraint of knighthood, in order to raise funds to meet the ordinary expenses of the government.

The Scottish Rebellion, or so-called "Bishop's War," marks the end of this period. The extraordinary expenses involved in raising and equipping troops could only be met by a subsidy from Parliament, so the Short Parliament met after an interval of eleven years, only to be dissolved for again daring to question the prerogative of the crown. Next year, driven to desperation, Charles was compelled to call Parliament together again, to make formal acknowledgment over his signature of the rights of Parliament and of his own past arbitrary misdeeds. Once he had made this formal acknowledgment, the rest of his reign was devoted to an effort to nullify these concessions and to establish more firmly his arbitrary power. The Civil War was the result.

4. There remains now the last, but the most vexatious and, in many respects, the most important point at issue in this great struggle. It is this point which pupils find most difficult to grasp. In the first place, in this age of good-will and toleration it is difficult to realize the bitterness which divergent religious views caused in the minds of men. In the second place, it is even more difficult for many to clearly differentiate the various opposing religious parties or sects; and, finally, it is not clear to most students that the great pressure which the first two Stuarts brought to bear in aid of the Established Church arose more from political than from religious motives.

By referring to present-day conditions in other countries, with which pupils are acquainted either through their reading or from accounts given by their elders, we can make them realize in part at least the hatred and strife which is stirred up by opposing religious views. Some of the recent atrocities in Russia will serve as an example, or the murder of Armenian Christians by Mohammedan Turks.

The second point is more difficult, and yet

it is of the utmost importance, not only to an understanding of this period of English history, but likewise of our own colonial history. In presenting this matter it is well to go back to pre-Reformation times, to note the course of the Reformation in England, which produced the Anglican or Established Church. Thus we have, after 1534, in England two churches, the Church of England and the Roman Catholic Church. In the Church of England again we should note the revolt of the more extreme reformers, usually called Puritans. These, in their turn, divide into the Presbyterians and Independents, Quakers, etc. In our classes we have been accustomed to represent this series of schisms diagrammatically, and to dwell on the relations of the one to the other, till the class comprehends them.

James, fresh from his struggles with the Presbyterian Church in Scotland, was in no mood to listen to any change which would tend to lessen the authority of the established Church, of which he was the head. His son, Charles I, maintained his authority with even greater rigor, not only in England itself, but likewise in Scotland. In fact, it was the attempt to force the forms of the Established Church on the Scottish people which led to the Covenanters' War—the beginning of the end.

With the Restoration a change in the religious policy of the Stuarts is to be noted. Charles II was secretly a Catholic, and James II openly proclaimed himself one. Therefore, their efforts were centered on establishing religious toleration, in order that their co-religionists might profit thereby. Although this policy favored all other dissenters as well as the Catholics, the bulk of the Protestant dissenters were unwilling to purchase toleration at such a price, and the last Stuart was finally driven from the throne.

Not the least interesting phase of the struggle between the Stuart kings and Parliament to the American student is its bearing on the settlement of our country. The time of the Stuarts is pre-eminently the century of the settlement of our seaboard colonies, and the struggle between king and Parliament is the predominating cause. It is therefore a wise expenditure of time to devote a few recitations to the way in which the New England, the Middle and the Southern colonists, respectively, worked out the tangled problems of religion and government which had so vexed and harassed them in the mother country.

The Tariff of 1816—A Type Lesson

BY FREDERICK H. PAYNE, DEPARTMENT OF HISTORY, EASTERN DISTRICT HIGH SCHOOL, BROOKLYN, N. Y.

Few of the major topics of the year's work in American history require so skillful a handling as the tariff. This is due partly to the present importance of the subject to all citizens and partly to the nature of the subject-matter. Economic principles are not readily grasped by pupils

of secondary school age, and especially is this true in regard to taxation.

The early tariff history of the country centers most logically about the tariff of 1816. This act we therefore make the occasion for the main discussion of the subject.

The first need of a government is money; hence the newly-established government under the leadership of Washington and Hamilton enacted the first tariff law, July 4, 1789. The main purpose of this law was revenue. It provided specific duties on wines, tea (an instructive item), nails and

salt, and *ad valorem* duties on paper, leather and tinware. The average duty was $8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. This tariff failed to produce sufficient revenue, and the duties were increased in 1790 and 1792. In connection with these new tariff bills Hamilton made a characteristically brilliant investigation of the subject and produced his Report on Manufacturers, which is worthy of classroom study.

The Embargo period, with the stoppage of commerce and the cutting off of importations, induced a marked increase in manufacturing. The tariff of 1812 recognized this fact, and duties were doubled. The war with Great Britain accentuated the tendency of capital to enter into manufactures tremendously; iron mills, cotton mills and woolen mills, which used the numerous rapid streams of New England and the Middle States, multiplied rapidly. In the South, slave labor and a lack of water power prevented any real growth of manufacturing, much to the disappointment of many Southern leaders, like Calhoun.

During the fifteen months following the Peace of Utrecht, British manufacturers rushed into the United States goods to the amount of \$150,000,000. The newly-arisen manufacturing enterprises naturally were almost swamped, and the "infant industry" theory was born and rapidly grew strong and lusty. Advocated by Henry Clay and other young Republicans, under the name of the American System, protection became a vital element in tariff making, and the first protective tariff, the Tariff of 1816, was the result. This law imposed duties of 25% on cotton and woolen goods, and specific duties on iron products.

The teaching of a tariff involves at least four elementary factors:

1. Taxation—direct and indirect.
2. Tariffs—Free Trade—Tariff for Revenue only—Protective Tariff.
3. Economic Basis of Price.
4. Competition.

Very little of this material is furnished by the text-books, and the teacher should therefore define and explain these factors to the class with many simple concrete illustrations, drawn from subjects within the pupil's own experience and previous study. Once this is done, reproduction and original illustration may be expected of the pupil in considering the later tariffs of 1824, 1833, etc.

The consideration of taxation may well be re-enforced by arousing among the pupils a discussion as to its necessity. Direct taxation is best illustrated by a municipal tax on real estate. Indirect taxation can be illustrated by the pupils themselves from their knowledge of the causes of the Revolution.

Tariffs are duties levied on goods imported into, or exported from, a country. Goods may be classed as raw material or manufactured product; for example, leather

is the raw material and the shoe is the product, wool the raw material and the carpet the product. Our government is limited by the Constitution to the levying of duties on imported goods; export duties may therefore be eliminated from the discussion. Free trade is obviously a condition where duties are not levied; that is, where no tariff exists. A tariff for revenue only is a single-minded import tax levied purely for the purpose of securing funds for governmental expenditure. A protective tariff has the same purpose, but adds to that the additional purpose of assisting the domestic producer against the foreign producer.

The effect of a protective tariff is to raise the selling price of the imported article. Illustrate this fact by using a hat, an overcoat or a watch, showing that the domestic article sells for the cost of manufacture, plus the selling expense, plus profit, while the imported article sells for cost, plus selling expense, plus profit, plus tariff. A revenue tariff is usually levied on non-competing products, while a protective tariff is levied chiefly on competing products.

The discussion has now reached a point where further consideration of the terms, price and competition are necessary. The economic basis of price is found in the law of supply and demand. Drill the class on such propositions as: Supply and demand on a certain article reach balance at a price of \$1.00; what will be the effect if the supply remains the same and the demand increases, or the demand remains the same and the supply decreases? Vary the proposition until the pupils solve it readily, then illustrate by asking them to explain the difference in price between a diamond and a piece of glass, the reason for the immense value of a piece of land in the heart of a large city like New York or Philadelphia, or the reason for a bargain sale at a dry goods store. Finally apply this law to the question of supply, as affected by a protective tariff.

Competition is the underbidding of one producer of a certain kind of goods, either by offering the same quality at a lower price or a better quality at the same price as the other producers of the same goods, in order to secure sales. The protective tariff, of course, limits competition by the foreign producer. A low protective tariff may restrain competition to only a small degree, while a high protective tariff may practically exclude foreign goods. Our tariffs therefore have frequently been likened to a wall surrounding the country and keeping the home market for the domestic producer.

Once these general propositions have been mastered, the class is ready to take up the tariff act of 1816 specifically. This act was intended to furnish a market for the "infant" or newly-started manufacturing industries of that time, and they grew and

prospered under it. With the exception of the graduated tariff of 1833, and the tariff of 1857, which brought duties down to an average of 20%, all our tariffs since 1816 may be classed as protective tariffs. It should be noted that the lessening of competition or the decreasing of supply results in higher prices; therefore, the tendency of the protective tariff is to make the price of domestic goods higher—that the government gets no revenue from domestic products—that there is no revenue unless there are importations—that the foreigner does not pay the tax, since he recovers it in his selling price—that the purchaser pays the tariff—that the consumer pays the increased price on both imported and domestic goods.

It may not be possible for the teacher to include all that is suggested here in his class-work, but at least one entire recitation, and better two, should be so used. At whatever cost of time and effort pupils should be made to understand the main principles of the tariff question. The present situation in Congress and in the country amply emphasizes that necessity.

So far in our history this question has been largely submitted to the people for decision. Henceforth it is to be left to a Tariff Commissioner, appointed by the President and Congress, about which the pupil should have some knowledge. This Commission is considering the tariff, schedule by schedule, making a scientific investigation of the subject. Its findings will be submitted to Congress from time to time. In particular this Commission will investigate and decide the difference in cost between the foreign and the domestic product. This will form a basis for the revision, schedule by schedule, of the Paine-Aldrich Act.

Success in teaching this topic will depend largely upon the clearness of the teacher's ideas, and, even more, upon the purpose he has in view. He must be careful not to form opinions for the pupil, but to teach him to form opinions for himself. Impartiality and the suppression of the teacher's individual beliefs is absolutely essential. The effort should be to give the pupil a fundamental basis on which to form his own opinions on present or future tariffs, to "size up" newspaper articles and campaign speeches on this question. Here is a great opportunity and important duty in assisting the development of intelligent public opinion on this national question.

References:

1. Bogart, Economic History of the United States, pp. 142-149.
2. Coman, Industrial History, pp. 180-190.
3. Wright, Industrial Evolution of the United States.
4. McMaster, History of the People of the United States, Vols. II and III.
5. Taussig, Tariff History of the United States.

History in the Grades

Interpretation a Function of the History Teacher

BY SARAH A. DYNES, STATE NORMAL SCHOOL, TRENTON, N. J.

The defects in history teaching in the grades have been pointed out forcibly again and again during the past quarter of a century, but perhaps nowhere are the glaring defects more clearly stated than in the following descriptions of the prevailing order of procedure: "(1) The teacher assigns a fixed number of pages in the text-book to be memorized; pupils repeat the text in recitation; they are examined in text-books at the end of a certain number of weeks; the subject is then dropped, and usually most willingly. The result is that pupils pass from these schools by the hundred with a brief mental encumbrance of names, dates, events—mere baggage. (2) In other schools no text-book is used. The teacher talks and pupils take notes. The teacher is not a special student of history, but she can talk text-book on a small scale. The notes of her pupils are swept together into a table to be memorized. The recitation is the story after the teacher, and with unique variations by the pupil. The text-book abbreviates the larger work; the teacher abbreviates the text-book; the pupil abbreviates the teacher.

"The results are a meager amount of disconnected facts and a certain uncertainty in the mind of the pupil that leaves him conscious of his own ignorance. Elementary instruction in history, conducted in either of these ways, is time wasted, money wasted, energy wasted, history perverted and intelligent elementary knowledge of the subject stifled."

Some of the most serious defects of history teaching still existing are due to causes largely inherent in present school conditions and are far beyond the control of any one person. But to detect and to analyze such defects, to call attention to their existence and to suggest possible remedies are duties which no genuine teacher fails to perform. If history is to be understood, the child's historic sense must be developed. How ridiculous it is to ask a child to describe the manoeuvres of a campaign when he has not the experience to enable him to distinguish a campaign from a cannon! The number of children or grown people who read or study history from choice is really very small. Nothing in their home life or inherited tastes leads them to this subject for the pleasure they may get from it. The taste for history has to be cultivated in such people if they are ever to gain any pleasure or profit from a study of it. The teacher's problem at the outset is how to arouse an interest strong enough to take the place of indifference. This interest is not likely to be aroused by a teacher who is herself ignorant of the meaning and significance of his-

tory, nor by one who is a stranger to the child's points of view at various stages of his development.

Granting that the teacher does understand children and has learned how to study history in an intelligent way, she must still analyze the "historic sense" to see of what elements it is composed and in what order these develop in children. Her next query is in what form should the subject-matter be presented so as to produce healthy, progressive development. All that she has learned about children, all that she knows about psychology, all her own study of history will be used daily in mapping out work and in conducting the recitation with tact and skill. It is a task that taxes the powers of the most experienced. One is never too well prepared to teach history. Perhaps her own memories of how her aged grandmother told true stories about the time when she was a little girl may be the teacher's most valuable asset now. It will help her to realize that interest is partly in the thing told and partly in the way of telling the incident or episode. To tell what she has to say in a way that will interest children is one of the most valuable accomplishments that can be acquired by an elementary teacher. Everything selected to be told must be worth knowing in the earliest stages of the work, as well as in the latest. In the earliest stages, however, the incidents or episodes need follow no regular sequence, but each tale must be interesting in itself. To find out what will interest the child at any stage of his development, the teacher must know the earlier history of the child and the nature of his experience. With all the tact and skill she can command, she must question and stimulate conversation so that she may learn what the child already knows about the subject which she is about to introduce for discussion, or concerning which she is to tell a story. She can take nothing for granted. She must actually explore until she discovers what she may count on as already known by her class. Her study of children and her knowledge gained through others' experience with children will be suggestive in the direction of what is probably known. This is difficult work. All work really worth doing is difficult. No subject taxes the resources of both the teacher and the taught more than history does. It cannot be learned without searching in every direction to get pictures of the past, nor can it be revealed to another without first ascertaining what he is capable of understanding.

Fortunately, pictures are cheap and plentiful, and photography helps to bring into clear view the soldier with his uniform and

weapons; the hero clad in gorgeous robes or homespun or deerskin; the queen's red hair, hooked nose, high ruff and elegant robes. Nothing is a better revealer of the past to the child than the teacher's own voice, facial expression and gesture, if she is thoroughly saturated with the feeling of the time and enters into the spirit of the age in which the heroic deed was done or when home life differed in so many ways from our home life of to-day. The teacher must tell stories. She must tell anecdotes and describe episodes. She must question. She must encourage children to talk. She must stimulate their curiosity and then satisfy it. She is under no obligation to convey information at the expense of observation, curiosity and imagination. To do so, would be to make the child pay too dearly for his information. One of her functions is to see that the child is prepared to appreciate both the historic vocabulary and the historic ideas which he will find later in books. The foregoing suggestions will help the teacher to secure a proper atmosphere for the reception of the story before she begins to tell it. Stories in history differ from other stories chiefly in this respect: all the elements of the history story must be true to life that has been lived in definite places in designated periods of time.

The art of story-telling once learned can be practiced anywhere. Success in this difficult art is largely due to the mood of the story-teller and her appreciation of the "feel of an audience"—that she is in touch with the minds of those listening. The transmittable thing in the story is its very essence. Each story has an atmosphere of its own, which must be appreciated by the narrator if she is to give a wholesome and vivid impression to the class. The young pupil needs not only the story itself, but the story plus the teacher's appreciation of it. What the teacher feels is revealed in her manner of narration. If she fails to see anything worth while in the story, the children are more than likely to take her estimate of it. Her way of telling it will prevent their interest from being as keen as it could become. The longing for the personal element in experience is natural. Even a play of Shakespeare can be spoilt for an adult audience by a poor actor, while an able one can intensify the pleasure of an audience by his personal interpretation of the lines. Children have the same longing to know what it all means to the teacher as they have to know how things impressed grandma when she was a little girl. Both longings are natural. Spontaneous, homely phrases appeal to them most strongly,

especially when rendered with an appreciation that suggests actual personal participation on the part of the narrator. All this implies that the teacher must analyze her material carefully. She must eliminate all unnecessary characters, all detailed descriptions. She must omit events that are irrelevant. Keep a single point of view and a close logical sequence. Use very simple language and reserve the point to the close of the story. All this is mere technique. If new terms must be used in the story, an explanation of the terms must be given before the story begins. She must thoroughly assimilate what she has brought together, so that she may evolve in her own mind the grouping and the presentation which shall stamp the meaning and the significance of the events upon the minds of the pupils. Her presentation must be simple, but dignified; truthful, but within the range of the child's comprehension. It requires skill to make each item enhance the dignity and strength of the central idea. Around the fundamental center of interest she groups the other events, incidents or historic personages in due subordination. Careful arrangement and exposition bring out the significance of the main center of interest. It is in this way that the teacher must utilize the disconnected raw material and make out of it a product which children can comprehend. It is by such careful presentation in story form that children come to share the exaltation of the emotions of those who have taken part in some deed of conspicuous daring. Each incident has a unity of its own, and the teacher's vivid narration helps the children to interpret it. She uses her voice, her eyes, facial expression and gesture to help convey the meaning. If she is full of the subject and has a copious supply of simple forcible English, she will be wise to refrain from memorizing the words of the story. It will seem more spontaneous, her connection with the class will be closer if she tells the story in the words that come of themselves on the spur of the moment.

In the selection of the story, the teacher must remember that a young child not only prefers action but that particular form of activity in which he might participate. Such actions as hunting, fishing, traveling, building, amusements of various kinds, road-making and household occupations appeal to him readily. If the hero or heroine is a child, so much the better, for the pupil's interest will be greatly enhanced. In the home training and the first three years of school life the fable, classic stories, fairy tales and mythological lore give the child a fairly good knowledge of the world's traditions. In the fourth year the actual manners and customs of different peoples might be described by the teacher with an imaginary child as the center of interest. The manners and customs may be those of the Greeks, the Romans, the Germans, the English or the Americans in

colonial days. This will make him observe more carefully the manners and customs of his own day, and the experience of the Roman child or the Greek child or the Colonial child will arouse his interest and broaden his sympathies in a natural way. The information gained will be of value in later historical work. In all work of this character, vividness and truthful impressions are essential. Graphic illustration must be utilized to help out verbal expression. The number of illustrations at hand, the beauty of their mechanism count for naught if the children are listless or unable to interpret the illustrations. One illustration well used is better than a parade of twenty handled superficially. The child's needs must determine the character of the illustrations. Clearness of impression is the essential aim for the teacher to keep in mind. Illustrations that would stimulate one class might only confuse another. Stories well told, dramatic plays, pictures and poems may be utilized in stimulating the realizing imagination of the children to appreciate the manners and customs.

Conversational lessons are most helpful opportunities for children to question about points that are not clear and for teachers to stimulate the pupil to make comparisons and contrasts. To conduct conversational lessons in a way that will be most profitable to the pupils, the teacher's knowledge of the subject-matter must be in an enthusiastic contagious form. She must be able to exemplify in word and deed that history is interesting and worth studying. She must have skill in amplifying, illustrating and vivifying what is contributed by pupils. She must be able to rearrange facts so as to make them appeal to different types of mind. She must awaken curiosity and arouse a desire to know more about each character or topic introduced. She will thus interpret history to the children through their own experiences. She will widen their horizons and enable them to enlarge their personalities. All teaching of history in the fourth grade must still be largely objective. This helps the pupils to get definite impressions which are of primary importance. The author has frequently observed teachers in the fourth and fifth grades trying to explain the theological differences in religion in the time of Elizabeth and in the age of the Stuarts. The differences were significant to the teacher. They interested her. She deemed them important and therefore expected the children to learn them. No normal healthy child is interested in such things at that age, nor can he understand them. A pupil may be able to commit to memory the words the teacher has dictated to him concerning such things and to reproduce them at her request. But he has no conception of their meaning. The teacher ought to be as truly alarmed and seriously concerned to have a pupil memorize in that way as she is when a cinder enters his phy-

sical eye. Both the cinder and the passages so memorized are out of place. Both are dangerous. A child at that age is not concerned with mental processes, nor abstruse productions in theology nor jurisprudence. He can appreciate the objective deed. Heroes and heroines of stirring adventure. He needs to be made to feel the human interests, not the intellectual. The causes and consequences that mean so much to the teacher are quite without meaning for the child. He can understand the actions of Myles Standish, the courage of Columbus, the daring of Boone, the heroic spirit of Drake, the hardships of Lewis and Clark. Few expeditions in any country for the last thousand years surpass that of Lewis and Clark, either in interest or in importance. An interest in all such expeditions can be awakened early. The proof of good teaching in any grade is not the amount that pupils memorize, but the degree of their willingness to work along similar lines of their own initiative.

ENGLISH HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION.

The fifth annual meeting of the Historical Association (English) was held on Friday and Saturday, January 6th and 7th, 1911, at University College, London.

Friday evening a dinner was held in the college refectory, following which an informal reception was given.

On January 7th the following resolutions were discussed:

That in the opinion of the Association it is desirable—

1. That in every secondary school there should be at any rate one specialist-qualified to supervise the history teaching of the school, and that the history lessons should only be entrusted to those who are competent and interested in such work.

2. That all school-leaving, matriculation and professional entrance examinations should include as a compulsory subject the outlines of British history up to the present day, including the growth of the Empire and such European history and such geography as are essential to the understanding of the history.

3. That the paper in an examination of this type should include (a) elementary questions to test knowledge of the main dates, simple facts and general course of the subject, and (b) questions to show the power of expression and appreciation of periods and movements.

4. That such a paper, as a whole, should not be entirely confined to political history, and that the second part of the paper, should contain a choice of questions.

The annual report of the Association for the year ending June 30th, 1910, showed 859 full members, 235 associate members. Fourteen branches of the Association have been established in the various parts of the country, and 22 leaflets have been issued. The annual report gives a brief statement of the work of each one of the branches during the preceding year.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

NOTES.

Professor Howard W. Caldwell, of the University of Nebraska, has been given leave of absence for one year to pursue studies in Europe.

An unfortunate printer's error occurred in the account of the American Historical Association published last month by which the name of Mr. Dunbar Rowland, of the Mississippi State Department of Archives and History was incorrectly printed.

Professor William M. Sloane, the new president of the American Historical Association, is the Seth Low Professor of History at Columbia University. Professor Sloane was educated at Columbia and took his doctor's degree at Leipzig. He served as secretary to George Bancroft, the historian, during the latter's visit to Berlin, and held the chair of Professor of History in Princeton University from 1876 to 1896. He has published the following works: "The French War and the Revolution," "The Life of James McCosh," "Napoleon Bonaparte, A History," "The French Revolution and Religious Reform."

Messrs. G. E. Stechert & Co., of New York, announce an interesting sale of books upon political economy and social science, containing principally the library of the late Carroll D. Wright.

A joint meeting of a number of Philadelphia institutions was held on Friday evening, January 20th, in memory of Henry Charles Lea. The organizations taking part were the American Philosophical Society, the Library Company of Philadelphia, the University of Pennsylvania, the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia, and the Historical Society of Pennsylvania. The exercises included: Introductory remarks by Dr. W. W. Keen, president of the American Philosophical Society; "A Memoir of the Life and Works of Henry Charles Lea," by Professor Edward P. Cheyney; addresses by the Right Honorable James Bryce, Dr. Horace Howard Furness, and Mr. Joseph G. Rosengarten. The family of Mr. Lea presented to the American Philosophical Society portraits of Mr. Henry Charles Lea and of Mr. Isaac Lea, the presentation addresses being made by Dr. S. Weir Mitchell and Dr. Samuel G. Dixon.

MIDDLE STATES ASSOCIATION.

The Council of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland has made preliminary arrangements for the annual meeting to be held in Washington, D. C., on March 10 and 11, 1911. The general topics for discussion will be economics in the high schools, and the teaching of history from the economic and social point of view. Prof. E. S. Meade, of the University of Pennsylvania, will read a paper

upon "The Present Status of the Teaching of Economics in High Schools"; and Professor James T. Shotwell, of Columbia University, will speak upon "The Economic and Social View-point in the Teaching of History." There will be detailed descriptions by teachers of economics of the actual conduct of high school courses in the subject, and a discussion of Professor Shotwell's paper.

A series of historical pilgrimages is in contemplation by the Council. It is hoped to hold the annual meetings in the future at places near points of historical interest, so that a part of the program may be the visiting of such points of interest. By this means the members of the Association in a few years will have opportunity to become acquainted with the most important historic sites and buildings within the territorial limits of the Association. A beginning in this direction will be made at Washington, when on Saturday morning, March 11th, after a paper upon "What Washington Can Do for the Teacher of History," a visit will be made to certain of the governmental departments.

THE NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION.

At the recent meeting of the Council it was voted to hold the annual spring meeting at Hanover, N. H., in connection with the annual Dartmouth Conference. It has been the practice at Dartmouth for several years to hold a conference of the secondary school teachers to consider some important branch of secondary school work. This year there will be held a second conference on history, and this union of force is expected to produce good results, both to the conference and to the association. Although the exact dates have not been determined the meetings will probably be held on Thursday, Friday and Saturday, May 11, 12, 13, and the New England Association will probably occupy the program for Friday evening and Saturday morning. A more complete announcement will be made in the March number of the Magazine.

The Committee on Historical Material has been strengthened by the addition of Miss Mabelle Moses, of Simmons College, and Dr. Ernest F. Henderson. The committee is steadily adding to the collection, and has in preparation a complete catalogue which will be of great assistance to schools in making purchases. Miss Ellen S. Davison is making a special study of the pictures in order to determine to what extent they are historically correct. This is practically a new field of work, and much good is expected from her investigation.

At its October meeting, the Association considered the problem of the teaching of economics in secondary schools, and the

next step, naturally, is to prepare a brief outline, embodying the best ideas and experiences of teachers of this subject. The Association has therefore completely re-organized its Committee on Courses of Study with a view to preparing such an outline.

Professor H. B. Wright, of Yale University, has been added to the Committee on Text-Books. In view of the considerable number of new text-books which are expected in the near future, this committee will not report until next year.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION. Standing Committees, Commissions and Boards for 1911.

(The names of those appointed in December, 1910, are printed in italics.)

Editors of the American Historical Review:

George L. Burr, George B. Adams, J. Franklin Jameson, William M. Sloane, Frederick J. Turner (these five hold over). Andrew C. McLaughlin, elected to serve for six years from Jan. 1, 1911.

Historical Manuscript Commission: Worthington C. Ford, Herbert D. Foster, Ulrich B. Phillips, F. G. Young, C. W. Alford, *Julian P. Bretz*.

Committee on Justin Winsor Prize: Claude H. Van Tyne, J. H. Latané, Carl Becker, Francis A. Christie, *William MacDonald*.
Committee on the Herbert Baxter Adams Prize: George L. Burr, James W. Thompson, Guy S. Ford, Edwin F. Gay, *Charles D. Hazen*.

Public Archives Commission: Herman V. Ames, Charles M. Andrews, Dunbar Rowland, Victor H. Paltsits, Robert D. W. Connor, *Gaillard Hunt, Jonas Viles*.

Committee on Bibliography: Ernest C. Richardson, W. Dawson Johnston, George Parker Winship, *Miss Grace G. Griffin, F. J. Teggart*.

Committee on Publications: William A. Dunning, Herman V. Ames, Waldo G. Leland, Charles H. Haskins, J. Franklin Jameson, Worthington C. Ford, Ernest C. Richardson, George L. Burr, *C. H. Van Tyne*.

General Committee: St. George L. Sioussat, Miss Lucy M. Salmon, F. L. Paxson, W. L. Fleming, A. E. McKinley, C. S. Paine, and W. G. Leland and H. W. Edwards, *ex-officio*.

Committee on a Bibliography of Modern English History: Edward P. Cheyney, Arthur L. Cross, Roger B. Merriman, Ernest C. Richardson, Williston Walker.

Conference of State and Local Historical Societies: *Isaac J. Cox*, Chairman; Waldo G. Leland, Secretary.

Committee on the Program for the Twenty-Seventh Annual Meeting (Buffalo and Ithaca, 1911): Charles H. Hull, W. S. Ferguson, G. M. Wrong, Ferdinand Schevill, J. S. Reeves, W. E. Dodd.

CALIFORNIA HISTORY TEACHERS.

Contributed by Nicholas Ricciardi.

At the last regular meeting of the History Section of the California Teachers' Association, held in Berkeley, on Wednesday, December 28th, 1910, the principal speaker was Professor Alexis F. Lange, of the University of California. "The College Preparation of the High School Teacher of History" was the topic assigned Professor Lange, to be discussed from the point of view of the university professor.

Professor Lange based his remarks on Mr. Edward's paper printed in *THE HISTORY TEACHERS' MAGAZINE* for September, 1910. He agreed with Mr. Edwards that "high-school history is not an end, but merely a means." If this be true, he argued, only university professors teach history scientifically. The high-school teacher of history should concern himself mainly with assisting boys and girls, through self-activity, to self-realization; he should "teach boys and girls, and not history." The history should be used only as an educational tool to develop boys and girls; but if it is to be a means, or a tool, to be used effectively, the teacher must be master of the subject. The "historic sense must be developed into historic consciousness."

The college preparation of the teacher of history cannot be determined quantitatively, but it should be, rather, a matter of quality. The preparation should be in terms of "attitude, power and skill." The preparation should not be "a piling up of courses with some seminar as frosting on top." When the work of teaching history in the high school begins, "the incipient historian must be born again." The preparation must be made, too, in terms of "the receptive mind, the contemplative, and the executive." The high-school teacher of history, using the subject as a means and not as an end, should develop in his pupils "sound judgment, a spirit of charity, sympathy, balance and power;" and, going back into life, choose those facts that will explain the conditions of life to-day, and show that the "present is the last stage in a mighty evolution."

To do all that was indicated a high-school teacher of history should do, Professor Lange, again in accord with Mr. Edwards, maintained that a knowledge of psychology was necessary, both genetic and social psychology. A knowledge of evolutionary ethics must be had also. These will enable the teacher to understand and explain "human phenomena, and human motives; trace popular movements, judge himself, and judge others." Professor Lange argued that the university can help in the college preparation of the high-school teacher of history, only by suggesting what not to select; but only the successful secondary teacher can suggest, with authority, the subjects that ought to be studied by the prospective high-school teacher. There should be special classes in the university

for prospective teachers. Who is to conduct these classes? They cannot be conducted by a university professor, because the point of view of the university professor is the historical, while the point of view of the high-school teacher should be the psychological. The best results, therefore, can be obtained through conferences. The university professors and the high-school teachers should meet on common ground. Professor Lange said that already advance had been made in this direction. Hereafter, eight or nine men from the University of California will visit the high schools, instead of one or two as heretofore. As a result of these visits and conferences, it is to be hoped, better text-books in history will be produced, for Professor Lange argued that a text-book in history, for high-school use, should be written by a man who is both a successful high-school teacher and a historian.

Mr. H. W. Edwards was introduced next by Professor E. D. Adams, Stanford University, President of the History Section. Mr. Edwards endorsed practically all that Professor Lange had said, and remarked that it was encouraging to note that the point of view of the university professor now was practically the same as that of the high-school teacher; and that, as a re-

sult of this, advance would be sure to follow. He agreed with Professor Lange that the college preparation of the high-school teacher of history should be "qualitative" rather than "quantitative." He added the point that the process of preparation should not be a divided one—one part conducted by the department of history, and the other by the department of education—but that the preparation should be unified. The men who have in charge this preparation should understand high-school conditions thoroughly.

At this meeting "A Selected Reference Library for History in High Schools" was submitted by a committee, consisting of Professor A. B. Show, of Stanford University; W. L. Glascock, of the San Rafael High School, and Miss Ada Goldsmith, of the Mission High School, San Francisco. This list, which was chiefly an enlargement and revision of a selected list prepared and presented by Miss Maud F. Stevens, Palo Alto High School, at the July meeting of the History Section, was received with little dissent by the members.

The officers for the next year are: William J. Cooper, Berkeley High School, President; Miss Anna G. Fraser, Oakland High School, Vice-President, and Alden H. Abbott, San Jose High School, Secretary.



A HOOSIER VIEW OF THE AMERICAN HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION MEETINGS.
From the *Indianapolis News*, December 28, 1910.

Questionnaire on the Teaching of History in the High Schools of Missouri.*

Two years ago the Missouri Society of Teachers of History and Government appointed a committee to investigate the status of history teaching in the high schools of the State. After considering for some time different methods of getting the data on the subject, the committee secured the co-operation of State Superintendent Howard A. Gass and, through him, got the much-desired information in fuller form than they could have gotten it in any other way. The State Superintendent is accustomed to send out blanks every fall to all the high schools of the state for certain information which he uses in his own work. He consented to send out with his own blanks a questionnaire which the committee had prepared on history teaching. This was done in November, 1909. By the following January those questionnaires that were answered at all were back in the hands of the committee.

The questionnaire contained the following questions:

1. Name of school.
2. Number of students of high-school rank enrolled this fall.
3. How many years of work of high-school rank in your school?
4. Courses in history of high-school rank:
 - Number of weeks in each course.
 - Number of students in each course this fall.
 - What courses are required for graduation?
 - How many recitations per week?
 - How many minutes in each recitation period?
5. Teachers of history:
 - How many teachers in your high school or academy?
 - How many of them give all their time to the teaching of history?
 - How many others devote only part of their time to history teaching?
6. Ancient history:
 - What text do you use?
 - How many weeks do you spend on the Oriental period?
 - At what date do you close the study of ancient history?
 - Would you prefer to close at some other date? If so, at what date, and why?
7. Medieval and modern history:
 - What text do you use?
 - How many weeks are given to the period prior to 1500?
 - How many weeks are given to the 18th and 19th centuries?
 - If no separate course in English history is given, is it stressed in the course in medieval and modern history?
8. English and American history:
 - What text do you use in English history?
 - What text do you use in American history?
 - Are the courses given at the same time or do they alternate?
 - Is there a separate course in civics of high-school rank given?

*Editor's Note.—The text of this questionnaire is here printed in full, in the belief that its form will be valuable to others making similar studies.

If not, is there any effort to combine civics with the American history course?

Would you like to try the plan of giving English history and American history in the first and second years, and then follow them up with ancient history and medieval and modern history in the third and fourth years? Give reasons for your answer.

9. Industrial and economic history:

In what course or courses are the industrial and economic phases of history stressed?

Is there a separate course in economics given in the school? If so, in what year does it come in the course of study?

How many are enrolled this fall?

10. Note books:

In what courses do you require the use of permanent note books?

What do you require to be entered in them?

Please give any suggestions you have found helpful.

11. Outline maps:

In what courses do you require outline maps?

Do you use prepared outlines, or do the pupils draw or trace the outlines themselves?

What kind of data is entered other than that furnished by the printed map?

12. Source material:

In what courses do you use source material?

To what extent, and in what manner?

13. Written reports:

In what courses do you require written reports?

How often are they required, and of what character?

14. Historical fiction:

What use is made of historical fiction?

What is your view regarding its value?

15. Library facilities:

Number of volumes on history.

Are the students in history required to read assignments in books of

Number of students enrolled in 137 high schools in November, 1909..... 23,500

| | Gen. | Anc. M. & M. | Eng. | Am. | |
|---|------|--------------|-------|-------|-------|
| Schools giving history courses | 3 | 138 | 139 | 124 | 142 |
| Length of history courses: | | | | | |
| Schools giving courses of 18 weeks | | 2 | 3 | 5 | 15 |
| Schools giving courses of 36 weeks | 2 | 128 | 127 | 118 | 123 |
| Schools giving courses of 40 weeks | 1 | 8 | 9 | 1 | 4 |
| Number of students in history courses (total, 15,284).... | 130 | 6,946 | 4,358 | 1,929 | 1,921 |
| | (2) | (132) | (128) | (115) | (116) |

(Figures in parenthesis indicate number of schools.)

| | |
|---|----|
| Schools requiring 4 years of history for graduation | 35 |
| Schools requiring 3 years of history for graduation | 36 |
| Schools requiring 2 years of history for graduation | 47 |

| | |
|---|-----|
| Total, requiring 2 years or more | 118 |
| Schools requiring 5 recitations per week | 144 |
| Schools requiring 40 to 45-minute recitations | 134 |
| Recitations ranged from 30 to 60 minutes daily. | |

Teachers of history:

| | |
|---|------------------|
| Number of teachers in 124 high schools | 842 |
| Number of teachers giving all their time to history | 81 in 59 schools |

Texts:

| | | |
|---|----------------------|----|
| Number of schools using Myers' Anc. Hist. | 118; West's | 14 |
| Number of schools using Myers' M. & M. Hist. | 117; West's | 16 |
| Number of schools using Cheyney's Eng. Hist. | 50; Larned's | 49 |
| Number of schools using Hart's Essentials | 48; Channing's | 35 |
| (Only the two leading texts are given here.) | | |

| | |
|---|----|
| Schools giving Eng. and Am. hist. at the same time | 85 |
| Schools alternating Eng. and Am. hist. | 34 |
| Schools offering separate course in civics | 47 |
| Schools combining civics and Am. hist. | 93 |
| Schools desiring to give Anc. and M. and M. hist. after Eng. and Am. hist. | 15 |

Industrial history:

| | |
|--|----|
| Schools stressing the industrial and economic phases in Anc. hist. | 13 |
| Schools stressing the industrial and economic phases in M. and M. hist. | 17 |
| Schools stressing the industrial and economic phases in Eng. hist. | 64 |
| Schools stressing the industrial and economic phases in Am. hist. | 69 |
| Schools offering a separate course in economics | 12 |

Total enrollment in economics

| | |
|---|----|
| Note books: | |
| Schools using permanent note books | 90 |
| Schools using permanent note books in all their courses | 56 |

Outline maps:

| | |
|---|-----|
| Schools using outline maps | 108 |
| Schools using outline maps in all their courses | 71 |

Library facilities:

| | |
|--|-----|
| Schools having 100 volumes or more on history | 78 |
| Schools having 150 volumes or more on history | 48 |
| Schools having 200 volumes or more on history | 40 |
| Schools having 250 volumes or more on history | 29 |
| Schools having 300 volumes or more on history | 20 |
| Schools having 400 volumes or more on history | 15 |
| Schools having 500 volumes or more on history | 9 |
| Schools having 1,000 volumes or more on history | 3 |
| Schools having 2,000 volumes or more on history | 1 |
| Schools requiring students to read library assignments | 128 |
| Schools having duplicate copies of books of reference | 47 |
| Schools reporting having some duplicates | 33 |

reference in preparation for class recitations?

Are these assignments made as a usual thing daily or only occasionally?

Is the library supplied with duplicate copies of the books most frequently referred to, so that the whole class can work on the same assignments?

Responses came from 248 high schools, but inasmuch as so few comparatively of the schools below first rank responded, it was decided to restrict the tabulation of results to those returns of the schools which were ranked by the State Superintendent as belonging to the first class. Such high schools have terms of 36 weeks, require 16 units for graduation, of which two are history, and have at least three teachers who give all of their time to high-school instruction. Such procedure enabled the committee to find out what the situation was where the best history teaching is supposed to be given.

Of the 181 high schools of first rank in the State, only 145 responded. Inasmuch as all the questions were not always answered, the totals in the different items of the tabulations made are not always equal to the number of schools that reported.

A synopsis of the final report of the committee, made to the society at its meeting at St. Joseph on November 10, 1910, is given on the preceding page.

The questions on source material, written reports and historical fiction were answered in such a way as to make the tabulation of the results very difficult. The replies on source material were the most unsatisfactory, as there was frequently a misunderstanding as to the meaning of the term. This was doubtless due to the fact that frequently the questions were answered by the principal or superintendent of the schools who did not distinguish between original sources and secondary sources. The returns show that historical fiction is used somewhat extensively on the ground that it enlivened the study of the assignment in the text.

E. M. VIOLETTE,
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Periodical Literature

HENRY L. CANNON, PH.D., EDITOR.

(Conducted with the co-operation of the class in Current Literature of Leland Stanford, Jr. University. Contributions suitable for this department will be welcomed. Address Box 999, Stanford University, California.)

—"The Christianity of the Catacombs and Basilicas," by Ludwig v. Sybel, is the leading article in the *Historische Zeitschrift* (III, x, 2).

—"The Diary of the Reconstruction Period" of Gideon Welles reaches its twelfth and concluding installment in the January number of the *Atlantic Monthly*.

—In the same issue, an article upon the relations of Lee and Davis, by Gamaliel Bradford, Jr., shows the high regard that each possessed for the good qualities of the other. Of Davis, Lee said, after the war: "If my opinion is worth anything, you can always say that few people could have done better than Mr. Davis. I know of none that could have done so well." Davis said of Lee: "General Lee was one of the greatest soldiers of the age, if not the very greatest of this or any other country."

—The reminiscences of Goldwin Smith, continued in McClure's (December), are devoted to "Recollections of Great Englishmen," and relate chiefly to Peel, Disraeli, Gladstone, Canning, and Edward VII as Prince of Wales.

—In the *Fortnightly Review* for December we find, at the hands of Lewis Melville, a special article upon "Benjamin Disraeli, Earl of Beaconsfield," who never forgot a friend and never remembered an enemy. This is based upon the first volume of the official biography (1804-1837), which has recently appeared under the authorship of W. F. Monypenny.

—In the *Political Science Review* for November, Stephen Leacock, of McGill University, explains the rapidity of the formation of "The Union of South Africa," on the ground that union has long been a South African ideal, cherished by all.

—In the *North American Review* for January, Professor Albert Bushnell Hart considers, under the heading "Personalities and Political Forces," our political outlook for the next two years, basing his forecast upon an analysis of present conditions.

—Hilaire Belloc, in the December *Catholic World*, gives the following answer to the question "What was the Roman Empire?" "The Roman Empire was a united civilization, the prime characteristic of which was the acceptance, absolute and unconditional, of one common mode of life by all those who dwelt within its boundaries, . . . an idea very difficult for a mod-

ern man to seize. . . . The world outside the Roman Empire was, in the eyes of the Imperial citizen, a sort of waste; it was not thickly populated, it had no appreciable arts or sciences, it was barbaric."

—"Great men need not that we praise them; the need is ours that we know them," remarks Professor Arthur C. McGiffert, of Union Theological Seminary, at the beginning of his series of articles upon "Martin Luther and His Work," now running in the *Century Magazine*. "Martin Luther was very human and very lovable, strikingly like our own Lincoln in his quaint humor, his homeliness of speech, his human sympathies, his simplicity of character, his clearness of vision." "Luther's Boyhood" is treated in the issue for December; in January, "Luther's Life as a Monk, and His Visit to Rome."

—Professor Preserved Smith, of the Meadville Theological School, also considers a phase of Luther's activities in the "English Historical Review" (October) under the title "The Relations of Luther and Henry VIII." Luther's final judgment upon Henry VIII, after his marriage with Anne of Cleves in 1540, was most severe: "The King wants to be God. He founds articles of faith, which even the pope never did. I believe Henry VIII is not a man, but an incarnate devil."

—The view of "The London of Pepys and Addison," by Percy Holmes Boynton, in the "Chautauquan" for December is drawn largely from the writings of Samuel Pepys, the diarist, "a sort of social barometer." "Nothing is more striking in comparison to the present than a pervasive and characteristic crudity," which finds a source of admiration in rough plastered walls, and laminated carriage springs, and is accompanied by coarse drinking habits and lack of manners. The voice of "the parson" was raised not over loudly: "Let not impudence get the better of modesty." "Avoid foolish superstitions." "Discourage the habit of duelling." "Eat and drink with measure." "Be kindly in speech." "Seek innocent diversions, enjoy friendship, cultivate the arts."

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Bibliography of History and Civics

Edited by a Committee of the North Central History Teachers' Association Composed of Wayland J. Chase, The University of Wisconsin, Chairman; Karl F. Geiser, Oberlin College; Laurence M. Larson, The University of Illinois; Clarence Perkins, Ohio State University. Assisted by Victoria A. Adams, Calumet High School, Chicago; Carl E. Pray, State Normal School, Milwaukee; William L. Westermann, The University of Wisconsin.

BRACQ, JEAN CHARLEMAGNE. France under the Republic. New York, Charles Scribner's Sons. Pp. vii, 376. \$1.50.

In this book the author "has attempted to gauge the great political experiment of France during the last four decades, and to make an inventory of the constructive and reformatory work of the Republic." Rather more than the first half of the book is devoted to a general survey of the progress made in the various phases of the national life. Here are found chapters on "The Work of Political Reconstruction," emphasizing the growth of democracy and individual liberty under the Third Republic; "Transformation and Expansion" and "The Development of Commerce and Wealth," describing the industrial development and colonial expansion of France and the growth of her financial ascendancy; "The New Education in the New Life;" "Changes in Literature, Art and Philosophy," and "In History and Science;" "Social Reform;" "Social Development and Morality;" "Religious Doubt and Religion;" and others devoted to showing the tremendous development of the French people along intellectual and cultural lines. Throughout these chapters, the author's point of view is sympathetic. He admits that the leaders of the Republic have made blunders, but holds that, in general, there has been wonderful improvement in every department of national life. To support his views, he produces evidence gathered from a great variety of authentic sources; in fact, one or two chapters are so laden with statistics as to approach dullness. One may find all sorts of interesting information in this evidence, such as tables illustrating the size of inheritance, accounts of the enormous increases in the value of French railway bonds and stocks since 1871, and detailed statistics proving that the average adult Frenchman is taller now than he was in 1872.

The last two-fifths of the book are devoted to a comparatively thorough exposition of the ecclesiastical and educational questions which led to the separation of Church and State in 1905. Here the author sides clearly with the anti-clerical government and produces valuable and interesting evidence to show the essential justice of the government's course. He urges that the compulsory instruction in morals, given by the State schools, is far from godless, that it has been very effective in giving the average French citizen higher ethical ideals, that the great increase in juvenile crime came while education was an ecclesiastical monopoly, and that the outcry raised by ecclesiastics against the government has been almost wholly unjustified by the facts. For the advanced student and teacher, this part of the book will furnish the most interesting reading, though, perhaps, the author departs too much from the impartial and judicial attitude adopted in the earlier part.

The book is well written, and will be a valuable one for school and public libraries. Parts of it will be very useful for secondary school reference work, and, certainly, teachers of modern European history should read it.

Clarence Perkins.

HAZEN, CHARLES DOWNER. Europe Since 1815. In the American Historical Series, edited by Charles H. Haskins. New York, Henry Holt & Co. Pp. xxiv, 830. \$3.00.

The field covered by this book is far from easy to deal with satisfactorily in a single volume owing to the enormous mass of interesting material available and the consequent difficulty of selecting what is most essential, and to the fact that the history of a dozen different peoples is to be followed through the complicated details of their development. It would be well-nigh impossible, therefore, to treat the field so as to forestall every criticism. Professor Hazen's method has been to bring down more or less together the histories of Austria, Prussia, France, and Italy which are so closely related that they could hardly be treated separately without much redundancy or lack of clearness. Having occupied about half the book with these, he returns to 1815 and traces separately the histories of England, Russia, Turkey and the lesser states.

Throughout the work the author's narrative is simple and clear, laying emphasis on essentials and giving excellent interpretation

of crucial events. Perhaps it is inevitable, though regrettable, that in a work of this kind some chapters have to be condensed to very brief space and some topics such as the "Papacy in the Nineteenth Century" denied treatment in separate chapters. On controverted questions such as the "Separation of Church and State in France," the author is moderate and fair to both sides, and in all respects the book is brought up to date. One of its best features for advanced students is the series of carefully compiled and very discriminating bibliographies describing the best primary and secondary material available on the topics covered in the various chapters. This is a period of European history with which every educated person should have some familiarity and a period about which it is easy to stimulate interest in the secondary school student. Professor Hazen's book on it will be very useful to teachers and students.

Clarence Perkins.

BRUCE, H. ADDINGTON. Daniel Boone and the Wilderness Road. New York, The Macmillan Co. Pp. 349. \$1.50.

This latest account of the pioneer western movement is told in a most interesting manner and with a careful regard to historical accuracy. The early settlement of Kentucky and the struggles with the French and Indians, and later with the English and the Indians, are graphically told, with Boone as the central figure wherever possible.

Boone's explorations, his hunting trips and his Indian fighting are described, but a general history of the early western movement is included in the volume. A very clear account is given of Henderson's great land scheme for the settlement and ownership of Kentucky, and the efforts of his company to get the Continental Congress to recognize Transylvania as a sister colony, with the trouble that arose over conflicting land grants. A chapter is given to George Rogers Clark's "conquest" of the Northwest. A considerable space is devoted to the Indian fighting during the Revolutionary War, chapters that will be read and re-read by any high-school boy into whose hands the book may come. The important work of the frontiersmen in checking the tide of British success in the South during the Revolution, at the critical and well-fought battle of King's Mountain, is told in connection with the early settlement of Tennessee, with John Sevier and Isaac Shelby as heroes. The chapters on the Watauga Association and James Robertson are not so satisfactory. The constitutions adopted by these early pioneers and the governments they instituted form very interesting examples of the natural turn of the early American pioneers toward self-government, and their instant recognition of the necessity of an orderly government. The dangers and hardships of the great migration to Kentucky along the Wilderness Road and down the Ohio after the Revolution are very well told. This book will be one of the best obtainable to interest high-school pupils in early western history.

Carl E. Pray.

FROTHINGHAM, RICHARD. The Rise of the Republic of the United States. Boston, Little, Brown & Co. Pp. 640. \$2.00.

Frothingham's Rise of the Republic still maintains its position as one of the indispensable books for any student of the causes of the American Revolution, and Little, Brown and Company have served students and teachers a good turn in publishing a cheaper edition of this standard work. The spirit of local self-government in the Colonies, the early attempt at a union shown in the New England Confederation, the determination, from the beginning, that Great Britain should exert no great authority in the Colonies, their pride in their own independence of one another and Great Britain's attempts to bring about some form of Union among the Colonies, form the first four chapters of the book. The next five chapters deal directly with the attempt of Great Britain to coerce the Colonies, and their resistance to the attempt. The next two chapters deal with Independence, and the last deals with the formation of the Articles of Confederation and the Constitution. This last chapter is the least satisfactory.

The book is strongest in showing the spirit of American Col-

onial institutions and the sturdy resistance of the Whigs to any interference by Great Britain in the reform or management of them. It forms the best source book of this period, on the political side, that has yet been published, and gives an intensely realistic picture of the struggle leading to Independence. On the other hand, it is quite lacking on the economic side of the problem, overemphasizes New England's part, and pretty generally leaves the impression that the Colonies were altogether right and Great Britain altogether wrong. However, I have for some time used it as a text-book for this period, with a syllabus to guide the class, and with supplementary references. I find it the most satisfactory book for students of the college sophomore grade. As a high-school reference book the teacher will find it invaluable for his own use, and good for students, if the references are carefully selected.

Carl E. Pray.

THE CORSICAN. A Diary of Napoleon's Life in His Own Words. Edited by R. M. Johnston. Boston and New York, The Houghton Mifflin Co. Pp. vi. 526. \$1.75, net.

In this work the editor gives us a biography of the first Napoleon "entirely in his own words, written or spoken." The material is apparently taken from various sources, such as the great collection of his correspondence published under Napoleon III, his own impressions jotted down later at Saint Helena, and from the reports of his sayings, given in the personal memoirs of his contemporaries. All this material has been rearranged and placed under the heading of the dates when the events took place, with the object not of giving a complete biography, but some "psychological illumination of a great career and character." The editor frankly admits that omissions have been frequent, and that he has not indicated them in the text, and of necessity one finds occasional ragged spots. Without a fair knowledge of the life of Napoleon, it is doubtful if the average reader would find the book, as a whole, valuable or useful; but used in connection with a good short biography the diary will prove intensely interesting and helpful to one who cares to study the working of an exceptionally versatile mind. Here one can read his views on almost every conceivable subject, and see the rapid operations of his brain in administering his growing empire and directing complicated military campaigns. The advanced student and the Napoleonic enthusiast will be intensely interested by this book, and the secondary school teacher will find it a mine of excellent illustrative material for use in modern European history courses.

Clarence Perkins.

JENKS, TUDOR. When American Became a Nation. New York, T. Y. Crowell & Co. Pp. xvi, 308. \$1.25.

This is the third of a series of stories of our country's historical development, and covers the period from 1789 to 1850. Within these time limits the nation's achievements of both war and peace are stirringly recounted, the varied life of the East and expanding South and West is vividly described, and the story of the political changes is clearly told. Like its predecessors in the series, it is popularly written, generally accurate and fairly well illustrated. It is not adapted for high school use, since American history ordinarily comes in the senior year, but it should find a good field of service as supplementary reading for the eighth grade, where the others of the series have already found acceptance.

Wayland J. Chase.

TUCKER, T. G. Life in the Roman World of Nero and St. Paul. New York, The Macmillan Co. Pp. 447. \$2.50.

As the title implies, this work deals not with Rome alone, but with the Roman world. Fully a fourth of the book is given over to an exposition of the organization and administration of the Roman Empire. Then follows a description of Rome and Roman life in all its phases.

While the book seems to have been written for the biblical student who knows the period "only through the medium of the Acts of the Apostles"—whom no teacher will mistake for a twentieth century high-school pupil—nevertheless, it contains excellent reference work for high-school classes. The race in the Circus Maximus will delight the heart of any school boy, as will also the chapters on a "Social Day of a Roman Aristocrat." Clear and realistic pictures of the middle and lower classes, of dress, of weddings, of education and of military service are given. The

characterization of Nero—somewhat different from the one of last year in Lancianis' "Wanderings in the Roman Campagna"—is full and vivid. The chapters on religion and philosophy connect it with the latter part of the title, St. Paul, to whom only incidental mention is made in the rest of the book.

The illustrations and maps are many and excellent. While no authorities nor sources are named, except in the preface, the work shows the same wide and sound scholarship as was shown in the author's "Life in Ancient Athens." Altogether, it is a very satisfactory general book on this important period.

Victoria A. Adams.

CLAY, THOMAS HART. Henry Clay. American Crisis Biographies. Philadelphia, George W. Jacobs & Co. Pp. 450. \$1.25.

Biography is likely to be eulogy when kin writes of kin, but the careful scholarship and self-restraint of the historian in this instance have resisted well the urgings of blood relationship, and a generally fair and just estimate of the great statesman has been made. The book is a history of the times, as well as a biography, so that both the statesman and the man stand revealed. The reader sees that Clay was intensely patriotic, talented, ambitious, tactful, adroit and bold; that he was a creator of positive policies and a vigorous champion of them, even when sometimes they were unpopular, as well as a promoter of compromises; and is made to feel the magnetism and personal charm by which this "Harry of the West" drew and held to him his large constituency. To the understanding of these powers the last forty pages, devoted to "Personal Characteristics," contribute much. In the matter of estimating Clay's contemporaries the author is sometimes at fault. For instance, Clay's leading rival, Andrew Jackson, is described and left as Clay and his Whig associates saw him, rather than as he is estimated by the leading historians of to-day. In the whole the book is accurate, based on a study of the sources and enlivened by citations from them, and is judicious and temperate. It is well adapted to the use of high-school pupils, and is the best single volume life of Clay for the high-school library.

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